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The History of Berwick upon Tweed, including a short Account of the Villages of Tweedmouth and Spittal, &c. By John Fuller, M. D. Berwick. 8vo. Common Paper 7s. 6d. Fine Paper 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

THIS production must not be strictly regarded in an antiquarian point of view, as it was originally composed at the request of Sir John Sinclair, the late president of the Board of Agriculture, by way of supplement to the Statistical Account of Scotland. Dr. Fuller consequently pays more attention to the present state and future improvements of Berwick, than to its history and antiquities. It is, however, to be regretted that he is not more conversant in the latter topics, as the singular position and circumstances of the town which he describes might have afforded ample and interesting materials of historical and antiquarian research.

In his preliminary observations the author intimates, that, as the statistical account of Berwick is the first attempt of the kind made in England under the auspices of the Board of Agriculture, he must illustrate the chief subjects of statistical investigation. In this attempt he enters into a wide field of declamation, too trivial for novelty, too general for instruction; and many parts of his work remind us of the axiom of Hesiod, 'the half is more than the whole.' A short example may suffice.

'This circumstance, of man's depending wholly for the supply of the waste of his body on vegetable and animal matter, is most wonderfully and beautifully displayed in the new-born infant, almost immediately upon its coming into the world, discovering an eager desire to suck its mother; which propensity constitutes what has been called the instinctive principle of animals.

'To those readers unacquainted with the nature of milk, it may be proper to state, that it partakes partly of a vegetable, and partly of an animal nature; this fact affording a strong presumption, that Nature intended the food of man should consist of both, in such

proportions as might be found by experience most suitable to individual constitutions.' p. 7.

He asserts (p. 35), that the places in England denominated *Stratfords* ought to be called *Strait-fords*, while every antiquary knows that they received their appellation from the *strat*, *street*, or Roman highway upon which they are situated. Speaking of the circumference of Berwick, he informs us, that it 'is one mile one quarter and two hundred and seventy-two yards; but, taking the admeasurement in the site of the old walls, which will include the suburb of Castle-gate, the circumference will be found to extend to two miles and two hundred and eighty-two yards.'

'It is not our intention here to enter into a description of the public buildings, or the walls, which every where completely surround the town, as they will be fully described in future sections of this work. We shall, therefore, content ourselves with giving, in this place, a general account of the town and neighbouring scenery, referring the reader, at the same time, to the ground plan of the town, which will afford him more clear ideas of the width and relative situation of the streets than can be otherwise given.

'The figure of Berwick, which is somewhat circular, approaches however nearer to that of an oval than that of a complete circle.

'Independent of the public buildings, the town consists of the following principal streets and lanes; viz. High Street, formerly known by the name of Mary-Gate, Hide-Hill, Sand-Gate, Bridge-Street, Church-Street, Woolmarket, Silver-Street, Palace-Street, Backway, Eastern and Western Lanes, with some other lanes of inferior note; besides an imperfect square, generally called the Palace, we have the Parade and Golden Square.

'The buildings, which generally are of free-stone covered with red tyles, extend in many places not only to the walls, but, in some parts, are really built on them. The houses, particularly in the High-Street and Hide-Hill, are, for the most part, three stories in height; and many of them are not only highly commodious within, but those of modern erection are handsomely fronted; nor are these improvements in building solely confined to the two streets now mentioned, but this laudable spirit is to be discovered in other parts of the town.

'A considerable number of the shops exhibit an appearance of neatness and elegance greatly superior to what they did a few years ago. And the taste of the shopkeepers in ornamenting their shops, and in displaying their goods, is such as to rival similar shops in the metropolis of either kingdom.

'It would give us pleasure could we say with truth, that a proper attention to the laying-out of the streets in a regular manner had been originally attended to. All of them are not only irre-

gular, but intolerably ill paved; while some others, though labouring under the same disadvantages, yet are sufficiently wide and commodious. The principal street, however, and one through which there is constantly a very considerable thoroughfare, is shamefully cramped at the bottom, by the town-hall being injudiciously placed in the middle of it: and, near to the other end of the same street, a similar obstruction is occasioned by the building called the Main Guard.

'Notwithstanding the general censure which we have thrown out on the negligence shown in the pavement of the town, yet candour requires that we should bestow much commendation on several individuals, who lately stepped forward, and, at their own expense, have paved the ground in the front of their own premisses. Examples highly worthy of the imitation of their fellow townsmen!

'With regard to the lighting of the town. The person who is under the disagreeable necessity of walking the streets in the dark winter's evening, will here and there meet with a glimmering lamp, whose faint light assists him but little in avoiding nuisances. For some winters past, the High-Street and Hide-Hill have been tolerably well lighted by means of a subscription. More of this, however, when we come to treat of the police of the place. The bridge will be described under the head of Public Buildings; and the reservoir for water, and the manner in which Berwick is supplied with that most useful article, will be detailed in section 7. chap. XVI.

'Before entering upon a description of the scenery of the neighbourhood, this seems to be the proper place to notice the suburb of Castle-gate, situated without the walls, near the north-west part of the town. It consists of one long broad street running nearly north, being the outlet to the great north road; and a long range of houses stretching from the further end of Castle-gate eastwards, called Greenses, principally inhabited by fishermen and labourers.

'Monsieur Jorvin wrote a description of England and Scotland, published at Paris, A. D. 1672, which the editor of the Antiquarian Repertory thought worthy of being inserted in that work. The account given in it of Berwick, and the adjoining country, contains several particulars which appear to be highly entitled to a place here.

"Berwick is the first town by which I re-entered England; and, being a frontier to England, has been fortified in different manners. There is in it at present a large garrison, as in a place of importance to this kingdom. It is bounded by the river Tweed, which empties itself into the sea, and has a great reflux, capable of bringing up large vessels, was it not prevented by sands at the entrance into its port. I arrived here about ten of the clock on a Sunday; the gates were then shut during church time, but were

opened at eleven, as is the case in all fortified places. Here is an upper and a lower town, which are both on the side of a hill that slopes toward the river. On its top there is a ruined and abandoned castle, although its situation makes it appear impregnable; it is environed on one side by the ditch of the town; on the other side, by one of the same breadth, flanked by many round towers and thick walls, which inclose a large palace; in the middle of which rises a lofty keep, or donjon, capable of a long resistance, and commanding all the environs of the town.

"The high town incloses within its walls and ditches those of the Lower, from which it is only separated by a ditch filled with water. In the Upper Town the streets are straight and handsome; but here are not many rich inhabitants, they rather preferring the Lower Town, in which there are many great palaces, similar to that which has been built near the great church; and in all the open areas are great fountains, and in one of them the guard-house and public parade, before the town-hall or sessions-house, over which is the clock-tower of the town; so that, by walking over Berwick, I discovered it to be one of the greatest and most beautiful towns in England.

"The greatest part of the streets in the Lower Town are either up or down hill, but they are filled with many rich merchants, on account of the convenience and vicinity of its port bordered by a large quay, along which the ships are ranged. There is not a stone bridge in all England longer or better built than that of Berwick, which has sixteen large and wonderfully wrought arches; it is considered as one of the most remarkable curiosities in the kingdom. I passed over it on leaving the place. Adjoining to it is a large suburb, from whence the country is covered with heath and briars to Ashton, where there is a castle: Bowklin, where the sea appears on the left, and a small island not far off, which forms a pretty good harbour, near a village, having a castle. All this sea-coast is covered with sand-banks, and the interior country to Belford an entire desert, as it is far above twenty miles round about, being only fitted for feeding cattle, occasioned by divers rivulets which run through meadows, where great herds of all sorts of cattle may be seen feeding." P. 37.

It might have been wished that M. Jorvin's curious account had been illustrated with notes by the present author; for it certainly is not free from errors or from exaggeration. Dr. Fuller's patriotic zeal for Berwick is deserving of applause; but it is impossible to avoid a smile at the following sentence (p. 47). 'The author of this publication would rejoice *to live* to see it rival London in extent, population, trade, and commerce.' This reminds us of the student mentioned by an old apophthegmatist, who, having heard that the raven lived to a hundred years, bought a young one, and

ſaid that he wiſhed to try the experiment. The mountains of Cheviot (p. 49) are compared with the Alps and the Andes: this is to make a mountain of a mole-hill.

'In looking up the Tweed from the Old Caſtle, and many other places near it, we cannot but admire the beautiful windings of that majeſtic ſtream, which we gradually, though reluctantly, loſe about two miles diſtant among ſome ſcattered trees beyond New Water Haugh.

'The luxuriant verdure of the banks of the Tweed and adjoining fields, together with Spring Gardens, enrich and embelliſh this intereſting piece of ſcenery.

'These gardens are ſituated about half a mile from the farther extremity of the ſuburb of the town, and ſtretch along the ſteep banks of the north ſide of the river. They enjoy much of the genial warmth of the ſun from their ſo completely facing that animating luminary. From whatever quarter theſe gardens are viewed in the vernal and ſummer months, the ſeveral little clumps of planting, which are irregularly interſperſed through them, ſome being ſituated on projecting eminences, and others ſhooting forth their exuberant foliage, from natural excavations, impart to the whole a conſiderable degree of rural ſimplicity, and no ſmall ſhare of a romantic and picturesque appearance.

'The ſcenery of this diſtrict of the Tweed will, in the courſe of a few years, derive much additional richneſs and ornament from thoſe plantations which have lately been made by Sir Francis Blake, from the banks at New Water Haugh along the ſide of the river, and which extend nearly to thoſe young plantings ſituated on the weſt ſide of Spring Gardens. Hallydown-Hill, famous in the hiſtory of Berwick, is diſtinctly ſeen from many parts of the walls and the immediate vicinity of the town, being diſtant from it two miles north by weſt. This eminence fully commands the whole of the town and quay: were the top of it planted with trees, it would become an uſeful object, as it would afford an excellent land-mark for ſhips at ſea, and would alſo greatly heighten the ſcenery of the neighbourhood. The rich incloſed fields intervening between Tweedmouth and Ord Houſe, through which there is a pleaſant foot-road leading to the village of Eaſt Ord, look beautiful and enlivening viewed from the ramparts and other places of the town.

'In looking down the river, either from Spring Gardens or the Old Caſtle, we are preſented with a ſcene truly picturesque and captivating, compoſed of the bridge with its fifteen arches, ſeveral windings of the Tweed, moſt part of Berwick, and all Tweedmouth and Spittal. Standing in either of theſe ſituations, and extending the view farther in the ſame direction, we diſtinctly behold Holy Iſland, with its caſtle, ſituated at the extremity of the bay,

about ten miles distant by sea, and twelve by land. In a clear day, we plainly perceive the houses, the sandy beach, and the foaming surf on the western parts of the island. In some states of the atmosphere, the castle appears in the figure of a large cone, suspended between heaven and the ocean, forming a singular and romantic object, from which the eye cannot withdraw itself without reluctance. In exercising the powers of vision in a south-east direction from the island, Bamborough Castle, built on stupendous perpendicular rocks, overlooking the sea, twenty miles distant from Berwick by land, appears in all the solemnity of rude magnificence. From all the northern and eastern parts of the ramparts, we have a most complete and interesting view of the bay, German Ocean, the island and castles just now noticed. Across the Tweed, near its junction with the sea, the land to the southward opens for several miles upon the view, but the variegated colourings of nature, succeeding to cultivation, are lost in the distant prospect. The beauties, too, of the landscape lie in confused arrangement; and frequently the whole is enveloped and totally obscured in sea vapour. The richest prospects which Berwick has to boast of are those from the bridge, particularly during the time of fishing salmon; the richness of these views consists, in the first place, in the transparent Tweed, with stately majesty, gliding down between its proud, luxuriant, and grassy banks. This enchanting river, after making many artless and beautiful windings, disembogues its waters into the German Ocean, and thereby produces a conflux and seeming discord with it; the point of which may be said to be manifested in the raging and roaring billows on the bar.

'2dly, In the great number of boats employed both above and below the bridge in bringing to land thousands of salmon of equal quality to any in the world.

'3dly, In the perpetual hurry and bustle on the quay in loading and unloading smacks and other vessels.

'4thly, In viewing the building of ships, both on the Berwick and Tweedmouth sides of the river, that are allowed to be the fastest and safest sailers which go to sea.

'The prospect we enjoy in looking up the river from the bridge is enlivening; the scenery here terminates in Spring Gardens and some farm-houses situated on elevated fertile grounds on the north side of the Tweed. From the bridge we plainly discover Holy Island in the skirts of the horizon. Bamborough Castle is also distinctly seen from this place, and resembles a huge mortar raised to an angle of 45 degrees. From a great many places situated within the liberties, we have very extensive and interesting prospects both of the sea and the surrounding country; the principal of which we shall only state in a cursory manner, as a minute description of them would run out to an unpardonable length.' P. 51.

In considering the history of the town (chap. II.), the doc-

tor shows great ignorance of history and antiquities, and manifests his deficiency in that critical spirit which modern acuteness has introduced into historical researches. Thus, in p. 67, he has given a long tale concerning Gregory the Great, king of Scotland, without stopping to inquire whether *that* Gregory the Great be a creature of history or of romance; and, in p. 140, he gravely quotes Hall's New Royal Encyclopædia, a wretched compilation never before quoted, and which, we will venture to say, never will be quoted again.

The medical remarks which are frequently interspersed appear to be judicious and benevolent; but we must pass over them to state two remarkable accidents.

'Upon the 20th October 1797, a pilot boat accompanying a smack sailing down the Tweed in a violent wind and stormy sea, was overset near the mouth of the harbour, by which the rowers, consisting of four men, were precipitated into the merciless billows. One of these waves, however, providentially rolled against the bodies of three of the men, in such a direction, and with such force, as instantly landed them on the dry beach; and not being stunned, and enjoying a free respiration, they eagerly took to their heels and escaped unhurt; the fourth man, less fortunate, after having for a considerable time most strenuously braved the waves, was picked up by a part of the crew belonging to the smack.

'About a year ago a gentleman, a stranger to Berwick, instead of riding down the high-street of Castlegate in his way to the town in a dark night, and there then being no lamps lighted in that quarter, rode down that part of this suburb called Windmill-hole. After having passed all the buildings to the right, the lights in the windows of Tweedmouth came in view, which he, unfortunately mistaking for those of Berwick, pushed his horse forward to the edge of the bank of the Tweed, and, still urging the animal on, both were precipitated to the bottom, a descent upwards of 150 feet; two thirds of which is a perpendicular; and wonderful to relate, although the horse's brains were dashed out, yet the rider escaped unhurt, and climbed up another part of the ascent, carrying his saddle and bridle along with him.' P. 168.

Our author, in the third chapter, proceeds to describe the public buildings of Berwick; and this chapter is illustrated with several views, neatly engraven. The church described p. 183, *et seq.* was built in the time of the commonwealth, and has neither tower nor spire; a defect which Dr. Fuller imputes to the spirit of the times, without reflecting that, in a town like Berwick, liable to frequent sieges, it might have been wisely intended to prevent the repeated injuries and repairs of so prominent an object. The celebrated bridge of Berwick, consisting of fourteen arches, was built in the

reigns of James the First and his son, having occupied in its erection no less a period than twenty-four years, four months, and four days. The doctor has been extremely minute in publishing several records concerning this fabric.

In the fourth chapter, he considers the constitution and government of this ancient town, of some parts of which, being singular and interesting, we will transcribe the account. After premising that Berwick seems to have been founded by the Anglo-Bernician kings, and to have been seised by the Scots about the tenth century, he says,

'Berwick was originally a Scotch town. It appears, however, to have been erected into an English borough at a very early period, from its having had several charters granted by the kings of that nation. The last of which was granted by James the First, and sanctioned by an act of parliament passed in the first year of his reign in England. Under this act the burgesses now claim their various privileges, immunities, and exemptions, as well as very large territorial domains and possessions. The liberties are co-extensive with the parish itself. Within these, however, as particularly stated above, a number of private gentlemen are also possessed of estates. The landed property of the corporation, if let, would amount to a very considerable yearly rent. Great part thereof is let out upon leases, and part of it is parcelled out into separate allotments possessed by the freemen. These are called burgesses' meadows and stints. There may be about 300 or 400 of such meadows and stints, which are occupied by the senior burgesses and their widows: as they drop, the next in seniority have a right of choosing into their allotments, by which means an opportunity is annually afforded of so many of the junior freemen coming into possession of meadows or stints.

'The yearly value of a meadow and stint may run from 5l. to 15l. per annum; but this depends upon the nature and cultivation of the soil; sometimes too from peculiar circumstances they exceed that amount.

'Since its conquest by the English, Berwick has been governed by their laws, except in one or two instances, such as the mode of passing a fine of lands within the borough and liberties thereof, which is peculiar to itself. It has also an exempt jurisdiction, not being within either of the next adjoining counties of Durham or Northumberland. But though it is possessed of an exempt jurisdiction within itself, yet it is not a county.

'It has a mayor and four bailiffs, however, who all in a body (or a majority of whom) act as sheriff in the execution of all writs and mandates from the king's courts at Westminster. For though they hold a court of record within the borough for the decision of all causes, both real and personal, to any amount, yet the king's writ runs into the borough, and suitors have it in their option to com-

mence their ſuits either in the ſuperior courts or the court of the borough. The latter, however, are ſubject to be removed into the ſuperior courts by certiorari, writ of error, bill of injunction, &c. For which reaſon matters of conſequence are commonly tried on actions brought into the courts at Weſtminſter; thoſe of inferior moment being tried in the borough-court on account of the ſmall expenſe attending ſuch trials.

'The judges of this borough-court are the mayor and bailiffs, with a jury of twelve men.

'The mayor, recorder, and juſtices, have, by their charter, a power to hold general and quarter-ſeſſions of the peace within the borough, for the trial of petty felonies, treſpaſſes, and other miſdemeanours. They have alſo a power of holding a general gaol-delivery for the trial of capital felonies; and ſuch as are capitally convicted at theſe trials are executed within the borough, it having a gallows for the purpoſe. The ſeſſions, or court of gaol-delivery, cannot be held without the mayor and recorder, who, when elected into office, continue juſtices of the peace for life within the borough. Gentlemen who have ſerved the office of mayor are likewiſe denominated aldermen.' P. 237.

He afterwards informs us that the burgeſſes are nine hundred and eighty in number, and that about one half of them reſide in the borough. The table of the duties, p. 249, *et ſeq.* would better have been thrown into the appendix; a remark alſo applicable to the papers concerning the bridge.

In treating of the diſeaſes which commonly occur at Berwick, Dr. Fuller is quite at home; but we ſuſpect that the ſtory concerning Boerhaave is apocryphal. He gives ſeveral inſtances of longevity, the greateſt one hundred and ten years.

The eccleſiaſtical ſtate of Berwick is diſcuſſed in the ſixth chapter. The church of England is the ruling eſtabliſhment; and the living is in the patronage of the dean and chapter of Durham; but the diſſenters are ſuppoſed to be more numerous than the members of the eſtabliſhed church.

In eſtimating the revenues of Berwick, our author computes the produce of the cuſtoms for the year 1798 at ſix thouſand pounds; and he affirms that in the year 1782 this branch of the revenue ſcarcely exceeded a thouſand pounds. The yearly exciſe of Berwick and Tweedmouth amounts to about nine thouſand and eighty pounds. The military department is not very intereſting. Among the manufactures are linen, damaſk, diaper, ſatin, ſail-cloth, ſeveral woollen articles, &c.

'Manufacture of ſhoes having wooden ſoles.

'Mr. Thomſon and Mr. Scott in Tweedmouth manufacture ſhoes of the above deſcription. As this article is cheap and conducive to health, it deſerves our attention. At preſent we cannot

ascertain the exact time when these shoes began first to be worn. It is, however, a great many years since they were introduced into Northumberland. Mr. Thomson has in some seasons sold 2000 pairs. A pair for a man costs 4s. and for a woman 2s. 8d. The sole is an inch and a quarter, the heel one inch and a half, thick. The upper leathers are nailed with small broad-headed nails to the edges of the soles and heels.

Thus a person wearing these shoes is carried much farther from the ground than with common ones: add to this the wood resisting dampness, the feet of course retain their natural heat, by which means the active labourer can remain with impunity a whole day in deep and wet ground. They are now made in all the considerable towns in Northumberland, Cumberland, and some other counties in England. There is a house in London where they are also manufactured.' P. 375.

Ship-building flourishes at Berwick, though the burthen of the largest vessel yet launched does not exceed three hundred and seventy-five tons. The account of the coasting-trade of the place is so interesting to a naval and commercial country, that we will transcribe a part of it.

'Before furnishing our readers with an account of the trade of this port, we shall make no apology for tracing it as far back as can be done with certainty.

'It cannot be precisely ascertained when salmon, or any kind of goods, were first sent in vessels from Berwick to London. Previous to that period, however, we find that salmon used to be sent from the Tweed to Newcastle by land. They were cured there, and conveyed by sea to London, where they passed for Newcastle salmon.

'The vessels employed to carry salmon to the capital, generally took several weeks in performing a voyage. This induced one Marshall to make a trial of carrying salmon on horseback to London. He hired one Home, who, along with him, set out from this for the capital with six horses loaded with salmon newly haled from the Tweed. They reached London; and sold their fish to such advantage, that, after paying all expenses, they cleared 20l. more than if they had sold them in Berwick. This may have happened upwards of 60 years ago. Home is still living, but so much superannuated that he can give but a very inaccurate account of the matter himself. Only one of the horses tired on the road in going to town. The hiring another in its place constituted the principal expense on the journey. It is said that Marshall made a practice of carrying salmon in this manner to Billingsgate, where he obtained the name of *London John*.

'We have been favoured with the following from respectable authority:

"When I had the pleasure of seeing you last, I mentioned that,

about fifty years since, two well vessels, of fifty tons each, were then found sufficient to carry the whole of the coasting trade between this place and the port of London. I should, however, at the same time, have observed, that this was only the case in the winter months, as there were always a good many more well vessels employed in the summer for the purpose of carrying the produce of the London market. These vessels in general were about forty tons burden each, and for the most part belonged to Harwich and Gravesend; and, as they came here solely on account of the salmon trade, they always went away again at the close of the fishing season, and two of the largest remained all the winter for the purpose already mentioned."

'Hence it would appear, that fifty years ago there were no vessels belonging to Berwick for carrying salmon to London.

'There are at present 21 smacks employed by the two shipping companies of this place in that trade, and in carrying other goods to and from London and Leith. The Leith trade was first entered into by the Union Company in June 1796. The Old Company followed the example in February 1797.' P. 389.

'The consequence of the salmon fishing here may appear from the following tolerable exact statement. The yearly rental of the fisheries in the Tweed, for the course of a few miles, amounts to between 7000l. and 8000l. in which between 75 and 80 boats, with about 300 men, are constantly employed during the salmon fishery, between the 10th of January and the 10th of October. There has been known to have been 40,000 kits, or upwards, sent from this town in the course of the season, besides a vast quantity of salmon-trouts sent alive to London; the number of kits has not been so great for a few years past, owing to a method of sending great quantities of salmon fresh to London, during all the summer season, packed in ice, collected in the winter season, and preserved through the whole summer for that purpose.' P. 395.

The following table will give an idea of the foreign commerce.

Countries.	N° of Ships.	Tonnage.
Denmark	2	150
Holland	4	340
Prussia	6	960
Russia	5	650
Sweden	10	785
Norway	13	1260
	40 ships	4145 tons.' P. 400.

In treating of the navigation and shipping, the doctor observes that the Berwick smacks are from sixty to one hundred and forty tons, and that some of them are constructed with

wells for carrying trouts alive to London. We ſhall not quote the deſcription of the harbour and quay, or the details concerning the fiſhery, &c. In the manners and cuſtoms we obſerve nothing particular, except the following account of Eaſter amuſements.

'The firſt day (Eaſter Monday) is called the children's day. It is pleaſurable to ſee what a great number of lovely and finely-dreſſed children make their appearance on this day. Being attended by a multitude of ſervants, they parade and run about for many hours, amuſing themſelves in a variety of ways.

'This charming groupe is joined more or leſs by the parents of the children, who, together with ſuch as are attracted by curioſity, form, on ſome occaſions, a company of a great many hundreds. They aſſemble in greateſt numbers behind the barracks, where the rampart is broadeſt. The fruiterers attend in full diſplay, as well as many itinerants in various purſuits. The whole together may be called a ſportive fair.' P. 445.

In the account of mines and minerals, the doctor gives us the following curious information.

"About 30 years ago, in digging for a foundation and a cellar within a few yards of the Cat Well in Hidehill, great quantities of quickſilver were found mixed with the ſtiff earth or clay which was dug out. Several cart-loads of this clay were carried to the ſhore before it was known to be ſo mixed with the quickſilver; and this ſtratum of clay and quickſilver extended for ſome yards, as far as the proprietor had occaſion to dig. And four or five years ago, the proprietor of the houſe adjoining up the hill found the ſame ſtratum, I am credibly informed. I myſelf took up a piece of the clay, about the ſize of an egg, and, upon breaking it in two, the quickſilver ſparkled and rolled out in little globules; and that ſmall piece of clay produced as much pure quickſilver, to the beſt of my recollection, as would have filled a tea-ſpoon. The query is, How came it there? I cannot conceive that any perſon could have had ſuch a quantity in his poſſeſſion, and that it had been ſpilled; nor, if it had been ſpilled, that it could have inſinuated itſelf ſo equally in ſuch ſmall globules throughout an extent, and to ſuch a depth, of a ſtiff earth or clay; but am inclined to believe, as many others do, that there is ſome ſort of mine of that metal in that neighbourhood."

'Several perſons who gathered ſome of the quickſilver have informed us that the metal was very uniformly mixed with the clay, and in great abundance.' P. 473.

The 17th chapter contains a long and heterogeneous 'diſſertation on thoſe ſciences and particular ſubjects which appear to be moſt intimately connected with the improvement and growing riches of a country and the advancement of the

human mind.' As this part contains a curious medical caſe, for which medical men will ſcarcely conſult this work, we will extract it.

'A large incyſted abſceſs, ſituated on the left lobe of the liver of a woman, was cured by one of the moſt extraordinary efforts perhaps that nature ever made. To give this fact credibility, we muſt trouble the reader with a ſhort ſtatement of the moſt important circumſtances which attended this highly wonderful phænomenon.

'The tumour, which gave the woman the appearance of being fully gone with child, by being ſituated on the left ſide of her body, had an unequal effect on the muſcles of the back, by which means the ſpine was ſomewhat diſordered, and ſhe was unable to ſtand upright or walk erect. She was greatly emaciated, had nocturnal perſpirations and other colliquative ſymptoms. Her pulſe, which was feeble, beat upwards of 100 in the minute. Having ſome years before this been ſucceſsful in a ſimilar caſe by an operation, where there was diſcharged, from the opening made in the cyſt, ſeveral quarts of matter, beſides an incredible number of hydatids, I had reſolved on giving my patient a chance for her life, by making an inciſion into the tumour. As no ſuppuration had taken place in the parts covering the tumefaction of the liver, and as they were thick and rigid, it was directed, with a view to render the intended operation as free of pain as poſſible, to foment them frequently with a decoction of chamomile flowers, to lubricate them with warm unctuous and relaxing liniments three or four times a day. The rubbing the parts with theſe ſubſtances was ordered to be done before the fire, and continued for at leaſt half an hour each time. A warm poultice of bread and milk was directed to be kept conſtantly applied when the other applications were not making. She was allowed a light and nouriſhing diet, and a glaſs of red wine occaſionally. To leſſen the hectic ſymptoms, ſhe was put on a courſe of bark. Theſe directions were ſcrupulouſly attended to. In about two weeks from the time of the woman's entering upon this plan of treatment, the author, accompanied with a military ſurgeon, went to her houſe to fix on a day for performing the operation. On inquiring into the ſtate of her tumour, they were ſurpriſed on being told, that it was not only ſofter, but that its ſize had diminiſhed as well as the pain had abated, which both the patient and her huſband ſuppoſed aroſe from matter having, within a few days paſt, begun to ooze out from the pores of the ſkin where the ſwelling was ſituated. On removing the poultice, we were aſtoniſhed to find a conſiderable quantity of glary yellowiſh matter upon it, which had iſſued from theſe cutaneous outlets. The woman was leſs hectic, and had acquired more ſtrength. Matters being ſo favourable, the idea of an operation for the preſent was given up, and a ſtill ſtricter perſeverance in the application of the

ſeveral remedies enjoined. As this diſcharge increaſed by the friction, this was directed to be more frequently repeated, and continued longer at a time. The oozing at laſt increaſed to ſuch a degree, that upon ſome occaſions the viſcid ſtuff was ſeen bubbling out from the pores of the ſkin in the ſame manner that water iſſues from the ſurface of the earth. Some of her neighbours aſſured us that they had repeatedly been called to behold this extraordinary effort of nature. The tumour continued to diminiſh gradually, and in a few months nothing was to be found but a little thickneſs of the ſubjacent parts, which we aſcribed to the contracted ſtate of the cyſt. The woman recovered her wonted health, and ſince that period has had two children.

'That this diſeaſe was an abſceſs we concluded from the hiſtory of the caſe, but particularly from a fluctuation of a fluid being felt in the tumour.

'The wonder that ſo extraordinary a caſe excites is greatly heightened by this, that every recurrence of a great diſcharge was accompanied by a *niſus* in the tumour and ſurrounding parts.

'This caſe affords the utmoſt ſcope both to the anatomiſt and phyſiologiſt. The author having the honour of being on a conſultation with that moſt learned phyſician, and moſt celebrated anatomiſt, Dr. Monro, near to the place where the woman lived at the time of her illneſs, he ſent for her and ſhowed her to the doctor.' P. 549.

The work cloſes with an enumeration of improvements which might be accompliſhed at Berwick, but which, being merely of a local nature, will not intereſt our readers in the recital.

Upon the whole, the preſent work, though frequently ſwelled with extraneous matter and little indebted to literary reſearch, does honour to the author's ingenuity and benevolence.

Annals of Medicine, for the Year 1799. *Exhibiting a conciſe View of the lateſt and moſt important Diſcoveries in Medicine and Medical Philoſophy. By Andrew Duncan, Sen. M. D. and Andrew Duncan, Jun. M. D. Fellows of the Royal College of Phyſicians, Edinburgh. Vol. IV. 8vo. 8s. Boards.* Robinſons. 1800.

IN this volume, the original eſſays appear to fill more than the uſual proportion of the pages; but we cannot add, that they are more than uſually intereſting. Of books the number is ſmall, and the partiality of friendſhip ſeems to have determined the choice as well as the degree of attention paid to each. Of thoſe which have already been reviewed, or will

occur in our Journal, we ſhall mention Dr. Pearſon on the cow-pox, Dr. Jenner's farther obſervations on the variolæ vaccinæ, Dr. Woodville's remarks on the ſame ſubject, the work of Dr. Beddoes on conſumptions, Dr. Drake's obſervations on the uſe of digitalis, and Dr. Fowler's letter to Dr. Beddoes on the ſame topic.

Among the foreign works, we firſt meet with the Memoirs of the Society of Emulation. We hope that the title will be propitious, and that emulation may make the collection intereſting: it is at preſent far from being ſo. The following caſe is curious.

'Caſe of Cutaneous Apoplexy. By B. A. Godfrey-Coutanceau.

'A young man, aged 22, driver of a military waggon, was brought to the hoſpital. His ſkin was hot, pulſe ſtrong and full, reſpiration ſomewhat quick, tongue white, belly tenſe and painful, body coſtive, and, what was moſt remarkable, his whole ſkin was of an uniform roſe colour, as if ſome red ſubſtance were placed behind it. He complained of violent pains over his whole body, eſpecially in the lumbar region, and could not be moved without crying out. No cauſe could be diſcovered for his diſeaſe, which had commenced by general pains and diſcolouration of the ſkin. Next day all his ſymptoms were worſe, and the redneſs had affected the cornea and ſclerotic coat of the eye. In the evening the pulſe became ſmall, hard, and intermittent, and he died in the night. On examining the body, the veſſels of the brain were found extremely turgid; the ſtomach and large inteſtines inflamed, the whole ſubcutaneous cellular membrane uniformly red, and filled with blood; the muſcles alſo containing more than uſual; and, laſtly, the capillary veſſels of the aponeuroſis ſeemed as if injected. Our author ſuppoſes the diſeaſe to have conſiſted in an accumulation of blood in the capillary veſſels and cellular membrane preſſing upon the nerves of ſenſe and motion, and from analogy has ventured to call it cutaneous apoplexy.' P. 103.

That the larynx, as modifying the voice, is a mechanical organ, and conſequently may be injured or deſtroyed by any derangement of its component parts, may be conſidered as certain, without the aſſiſtance of M. Portal's caſes; and that cutting off the hair, when there was a diſcharge from the head, was injurious, we long ſince learned from the practice of the Poliſh phyſicians in the plica. An inſtance of a rupture of the right pſoa, by lifting a heavy burthen, is ſingular. M. Leroy's memoir on the medicinal properties of phoſphorus contains ſome ſuſpicious circumſtances; and it is probable that the imagination had a ſhare in the reſult. It is apparently an active ſtimulant, taken from one fourth to a grain in a day. It muſt be violently ſhaken in hot, and

then thrown into cold water, which precipitates it in a powder. One or two grains of this powder muft be mixed in a glafs mortar cooled with water or ice, with fome fugar, oil, and the yolk of an egg, to make a bolus.

The next foreign publication is a new edition of M. Dufresnoy's Obfervations on the 'Rhus Radicans,' and Meadow Saffron, firft publifhed in 1788, and noticed in the feventeenth volume of the Medical Commentaries. It is now enlarged by obfervations on paralytic and convulfive difeafes, to which thefe remedies are peculiarly adapted, with thofe remarks on their ufe which have occurred fince their former publication. The introduction contains a melancholy picture of the ftate of literature in France, which, in its fuppofed *enlightened* ftate, feems likely, from this account, to be involved in the *darknefs* of barbarifm. The new obfervations are not of great importance. The author has found the meadow faffron of great ufe in chin-cough. Four ounces of the dried flowers are to be boiled, for a few minutes, in an ounce of water, of which a fyrup is made, to be given in a dofe from half a drachm to half an ounce.

The firft volume of the Memoirs of the National Inftitute of Science and of Arts is next noticed. In one article, Van Mons endeavours to prove the fallacy of Girtanner's opinion, that hydrogen is the bafis of muriatic acid, or, in other words, that this acid is to water what the nitric is to air. M. Hauy fhows, that the electrical properties of zeolithes are confined to the firft kind, defcribed by Cronftedt; and that the apex poffeffes negative, while the bafe difplays pofitive electricity. Similar properties are poffeffed by calamine and calcareous borate: in the latter, the primitive form is a cube, of which four angles poffefs one kind of electricity, and four the other.—M. Pelletier, to diffolve the elaftic gum in vitriolic æther, repeatedly boils it in water, both whole and minutely dried, before it is digefted in the æther. The papers on the protrufion of the tongue, and the locked jaw, add nothing to our former knowledge. But the following remarks of M. Chaptal, from his Memoir on Euphorbium, deferve attention.

'In order to explain thefe operations, M. Chaptal obferves, that the common charcoal, although mixed with earths, is incapable of nourifhing vegetables, while, from the decompofition of plants, by which their carbonaceous matter is feparated, vegetables derive their nutritious principles. This difference arifes, in our author's opinion, from the carbon, in the latter cafe, always remaining diffolved in the oily, extractive, refinous, or alkaline principle, by which means the water ferves as a vehicle for conveying it to every part of the fyftem of the plant, as it has the power of diffolving or diluting thefe natural combinations. The carbon thus conveyed is

feparated from its combinations by the means already explained. This ingenious idea does not militate againft another explanation that might be given, although not hinted at by Chaptal, that the charcoal of commerce is in fact an oxyd of carbon, an opinion which many circumftances have long rendered probable, and which the late difcoveries of Morveau feem to have completely eftablifhed.

'In animals, our author concludes, nutrition is carried on by fimilar laws. In them, the fibrous matter or carbon is diffolved in the gelatinous albumen; and air, acids, and reft, are equally capable of precipitating it. The albumen itfelf, which forms a fecond nutritive fubftance in great abundance in the animal machine, concretes by the action of the air, according to the ingenious opinion of Fourcroy; and perhaps the air, which penetrates every part of the body, through various channels, is effentially deftined to precipitate, and to confolidate the fibre and the albumen.' P. 205.

Halle defcribes a cafe of emaciation, from an apparent obliteration of the lymphatic fyftem; and Defeffartz mentions a fact, formerly obferved, that the coincidence of miliaria interrupts the progrefs of the fmall-pox: his inference is, that miliaria is occafionally an idiopathic difeafe.

A long and interefting analyfis of Von Humboldt's fecond volume, entitled Experiments on Stimulated Mufcular and Nervous Fibres, with Conjectures on the Chemical Procefs of Animal and Vegetable Life, is continued from the laft volume. He firft gives a candid view of the advantages and difadvantages of Galvanifm. He fhows, that we have looked at excitement, and the exciting powers, too generally. Nothing, it appears, is either ftimulating or fedative; but the whole effect depends on the ftate of the organs, with which the fubftance enters into combination. This view of the fubject may probably reconcile fome contending doctrines, refpecting the action of medicines. Von Humboldt, through the whole of this fubject, has kept his eye fteadily fixed on facts, which are too mifcellaneous and numerous to admit a more concife form than that in which they now appear to us. The abridgement, in this volume of the Annals, appears to be executed with no common care; but we wifh to fee the work entire in an Englifh drefs.

The laft foreign work noticed is M. Hufeland's Journal of Practical Medicine and Surgery, publifhed between the years 1795 and 1799, confifting of feven volumes. This analyfis refpects only the author's fummary view, in which, with fome complacency, he recapitulates the improvements in medicine confequent on his undertaking, not only in the more accurate diftinction of difeafes, but in the introduction of new medicines. The firft of the latter is the phellandrium aquaticum.

The ſeeds of this vegetable are recommended in doſes of five grains, gradually increaſed to fifteen. Various teſtimonies of the good effects of this medicine are ſcattered through the different volumes. The next remedy is the calx antimonii ſulphurata, recommended as an alterative in chronic diſeaſes. Another is the muriat of iron, joined with muriat of barytes, ſuppoſed to be ſerviceable in ſcrofula, chloroſis, and ſimilar complaints. A watery extract of the nux vomica is recommended in aſthma and dyſentery; but the effects appear to have been highly deleterious. The gratiola has been found an uſeful remedy in mania. The extract of carduus benedictus is ſuppoſed to be uſeful in the catarrhs of children, as a gently ſtimulating expectorant; the extract of chamomile in old ſores; phoſphorus as a diffuſible ſtimulus; and carbonat of pot-aſh for convulſions, as an exciter of the nervous power, ſince it was found to be powerful in this reſpect, when the nervous power had been diminiſhed or deſtroyed by opium. As phoſphorus is becoming a faſhionable remedy, we will tranſcribe, from this article, ſome obſervations on its uſe.

'The reſult of Dr. Handell's future trials with this remedy is, that it alleviates, but does not cure the diſeaſe, when hereditary, or congenital, and depending on organic affection.

'2dly, It cured three caſes of acquired epilepſy, one of which depended on a material cauſe in the abdomen; another, on the imperfect formation of an exanthematous diſeaſe; and the third, on great debility and mobility of the ſyſtem. And,

'3dly, It was hurtful in four caſes; three of which were the conſequence of an increaſed flow and congeſtion of blood in the head; and the fourth, of a ſevere concuſſion of the head.

'To theſe obſervations, Prof. Huſeland adds the following remarks. "It is known," he ſays, "that phoſphorus is one of the moſt powerfully exciting remedies, and promoter of the ſecretions; and it may be, therefore, employed with advantage in nervous weakneſs, nervous fever, atonic gout, paralyſis, &c. He gave it with great benefit in two caſes of inveterate arthritis nodoſa. It cauſed a copious flow of ſweat and urine. It alſo deſerves a trial in ſlow poiſoning with lead or arſenic. He at leaſt knew one caſe, where the patient had been poiſoned in Italy, probably with aqua toſana, and was rapidly declining; in which phoſphorus effected a cure, after many things had been tried in vain.

'But it is alſo certain, and, he ſays, confirmed by his own experience, that it is a dangerous remedy, and to be uſed only with the utmoſt caution, as it very readily produces inflammation of the ſtomach and bowels, or induration of theſe parts. In the firſt caſe, acute ſymptoms occur, with the moſt violent burning and lancinating pains in the region of the ſtomach, not unfrequently having a fatal iſſue. In the ſecond caſe, the chronic complaints, which

usually accompany induration of the stomach, cramps, indigestion, vomiting, constipation, emaciation, and hectic fever, are produced. Dr. Hufeland has known several examples, where quacks had exhibited large and frequent doses of phosphorus, in which considerable indurations of the stomach were discovered after death; but both effects appear to arise from its exhibition, either in too large a dose, or in substance, when a small bit may easily adhere to the stomach, and produce inflammation or induration.

'With regard to the dose, Dr. Hufeland says, that more than two grains cannot be given in twenty-four hours with safety. Large doses always produced burning pains, and one grain was generally sufficient. With regard to form, it must be completely dissolved and involved, so as to prevent its stimulating the stomach too much. In conserve, its substantial form forbids its use; in oil, it is too nauseous; and ether dissolves too little of it; so that, in some instances, a sufficient dose cannot be given, on account of the activity of the menstruum.

'Dr. Hufeland, therefore, proposes the following:

℞. Phosph. urin. gr. ii. subige exacte longa trituratione, cum
Muc. G. Arab. q. s. ut fiat cum
Aq. font. ℥vi. emulsio.
Adde syrup emuls. ℥i.
Liquor anod. Hofm. gtt. xxx.

'Sig. A table-spoonful to be taken every two hours. In this manner he obtains a very active and pleasant emulsion, which he now always employs without any inconvenience.' P. 273.

The medical observations are numerous, but not very important. Dr. Ross gives an account of a case, where the stools and urine were suppressed, in consequence of the retroversion of the pregnant uterus, which terminated fatally. The woman foolishly resisted, at first, almost every attempt to relieve her; and at last the appearances, on dissection, showed that, in the course of the disease, inflammations of various parts had taken place.

In the second case related, that of uterine hæmorrhage, the placenta was protruded four hours before the delivery of the child, which was delayed by a longitudinal contraction of the uterus. The only practical lesson suggested by it is, whether, when hæmorrhage comes on in consequence of the attachment of the placenta to the os uteri, it may not be proper to deliver the after-birth, previously to the delivery of the child. It may certainly be attempted.

Observations on the cow-pox by Mr. Chapman and Dr. Pearson follow. From the latter we learn, that a person who has had the small-pox is unsusceptible of the cow-pox; and that *this* will not attack a second time, constitutionally, though

it will, like the matter of the ſmall-pox, produce local infection and a local diſeaſe. This local diſeaſe will communicate the conſtitutional one to perſons who have not had either the ſmall or the cow-pox.

Dr. Hall had given ſome obſervations on pemphigus, in the third volume of the Annals, in which he conſidered the diſeaſe as ſporadic. Others have formed a different opinion; and he now endeavours to ſupport his former doctrine, by the recurrence of the diſeaſe in one of thoſe who had it before. The diſeaſe was certainly, *then*, ſporadic, and Dr. Hall could not communicate it by inoculation. This and many other of the caſes related are unreaſonably extended by trite remarks.

Dr. Mitchell's ſpeculations on the perſpirable fluids of the human body offer nothing very new or intereſting. He thinks, that the perſpirable fluids, uniting with oxygen, produce the ſeptic acid, which is neutraliſed by the alkalis, in ſoap. We believe the old theory, that the alkali unites with an additional quantity of oil, and the acknowledged fact, that ſoap will waſh off oily impurities, to be ſufficient to explain all the circumſtances mentioned by our author in theſe laboured and extenſive 'ſpeculations.'

In the caſe related by Mr. Hunter, the inverted uterus was ſucceſsfully extirpated. It had become dry, horny, and inſenſible.

The following caſe related by Dr. Hall is called a ſingular inſtance of chorea Sancti Viti, conſiderably relieved by the uſe of argentum nitratum. Such confuſion of language is reprehenſible; for this is evidently a caſe of epilepſy, and as evidently nervous, unconnected with the alleged blow on the head. It was probably produced by agitation and terror. The ſingularity of the caſe, and the difficulty of explaining the effects of the nitrated ſilver, are therefore wholly the author's own productions; for it is not ſingular that epilepſies ſhould be produced by terror, nor is it difficult to perceive that metallic fomes will relieve convulſive diſorders.

Dr. Hoſack next relates a caſe of tetanus cured by the liberal uſe of wine; and Mr. Wilſon communicates the ſequel of a caſe of extra-uterine fœtus, partly voided through an abſceſs in the abdomen, publiſhed in the Annals for 1797. This ſequel contains the diſſection. The cauſe of obſtruction to the ſecretion of urine, in the caſe communicated by Mr. Dickſon, was a phimoſis, and the ſingularity only conſiſts in this point, that the urine thus obſtructed forms gravelly concretions between the glands and the prepuce.—Dr. Moſman, long before Dr. Currie's publication, had uſed cold ablutions in ſcarlatina, which he has alſo confined to the hot fits, and finds them very ſucceſsful, particularly in leſſening or preventing delirium. Dr. Yeats relates a caſe of a ſevere wound in the tongue,

threatening locked jaw, the ſymptoms of which were relieved by a doſe of calomel and rhubarb. We can perceive in the caſe no ſymptoms of this kind; for it is not ſurpriſing that 'a ſevere blow on his mouth, by which his tongue was ſlit longitudinally, with a laceration at the bottom of the ſlit laterally,' ſhould produce a ſtiffneſs of the jaws the next morning, the only circumſtance which, in the opinion of this phyſician, threatened triſmus.

Some caſes related by Dr. Haxby, of Pontefract, follow. Theſe are, 1. a caſe of epilepſy, relieved by muſk and opium; 2. a caſe where the teſticles had not deſcended into the ſcrotum till after the fourth year; 3. a caſe of enlargement of one of the ſpinal vertebræ, gradually diſappearing on an enlargement of the trochanter major of the right thigh, and terminating fatally in hydrocephalus. This laſt is a ſingular inſtance. A caſe of repelled gonorrhœa, ſucceeded by a ſevere affection of the eyes, is afterwards mentioned; but, as the diſeaſe had ſubſiſted three weeks before recourſe was had to the aſtringent injections, and as theſe were uſed ſix days before the ophthalmia came on, during which 'the diſcharge gradually diminiſhed,' we muſt conſider the ophthalmia as accidental only.

Mr. Anderſon gives a very favourable report of the good effects of calomel in croup. It is given in the doſe of three or four grains to a child of the age of two years. The practice was firſt ſuggeſted in America. Three caſes, 'ſomewhat ſingular,' are related by Dr. Borthwick. The firſt was a wound in the kidney, which was attended with little pain: there can be no doubt that the ſword paſſed *through* the kidney; and, perhaps, to this circumſtance the patient owed his recovery, as the blood, inſtead of being effuſed in the cavity, immediately paſſed through the urethra. The ſecond is an inſtance of the ſucceſsful termination of the bubonocele in a female by the operation; the third is a caſe of cataract, where the lens was ſucceſsfully extracted.

The firſt article of the third ſection, entitled 'Medical News,' is a miſcellaneous letter from Dr. Guthrie, who reſides at Peterſburg. In this we find Mr. Hynam's caſe, formerly noticed, where the vapour of the ſpirit of turpentine relieved a chronic ophthalmia; alſo an account of the exhibition of flores zinci with what Dr. Guthrie calls an 'empiric boldneſs.' He gave in a violent caſe of epilepſy eight grains the firſt day, and in eight days gradually increaſed the doſe to forty grains daily, with ſucceſs. This quantity was continued for a month, and divided only into two doſes. Another extraordinary remedy is common ſand, which, ſwallowed in the quantity of a table-ſpoonful twice a day, removed ſwelling of the legs, and inflation of the ſtomach and abdomen. It purged 'pretty briſkly.'

Dr. Brown's account of the good effects of cold applications to the head in mania, some farther experiments on the good effects of vaccine inoculation, by Mr. Anderson of Leith, and some observations on the use of the seneka in the cure of croup, deserve attention. Short memoirs of Vicq-d'Azyr, a martyr to the terrors inspired by the French reformers, of the celebrated chemist Charles Gren, of Dr. Ingenhousz, of Dr. Withering and Dr. Black, with the lists of deaths, conclude this part of the volume. We wish that the life of Dr. Black had been written with greater spirit, and his first discoveries, the spark which animated the flame, connected more carefully with the successful labours of his predecessors. It might have been expected from a colleague.

A table of the number of students in the university, for the last ten years, is annexed; and we will add the annual average. Of literature and philosophy the average was very near 459; of divinity above 132; of law 136; of medicine 559—total, 1286.

In 1798 the thermometer varied from 76° to 24°. The mean was 53°, and the mean heat of April 58°. The barometer ranged from 30.72 inches to 28.4; its mean was 29.59. The rain amounted to 23.720 inches. In the same year the mean heat in London was 51.3, and the rain 19.411.

Travels through the United States of North America, &c. By the Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt. (Concluded from Vol. XXVIII. New Arr. p. 289.)

IN our account of the first volume of this work, we mentioned the duke's situation and pretensions, and also spoke of his duplicity. Though he was protected by England, his travels were directed to undermine her interest, to misrepresent her views, and alienate her friends, from motives either of national vanity, or, as has been insinuated by the translator, of interest, that he might procure from the French directory his recall and restoration. The same spirit continues to appear, and is occasionally more disgusting in the second volume, where the duke is often unable to conceal his vexation, at seeing the English interest prevail, at the support which it received from Washington, and the probable disappointment of the friends of France, in the successor of the president.

The second volume commences with a tour from Charlestown, by sea, to Norfolk, in Virginia. Thence the duke passed westward, through Richmond and Charlotte-ville to the Blue Mountains, a part of the Alleghany ridge, the Apennines of America. His journey was then directed northward, through the Vale of the Shenandoah; he crossed the Poto-

mack, where he entered the ſtate of Maryland, and proceeded to Philadelphia. In this route there is nothing very intereſting. The ſtate of Virginia is ſufficiently known; but we are informed that the cultivation of tobacco is gradually leſſened, and may ſoon perhaps be diſcontinued; that of wheat has ſucceeded. The culture of tobacco is explained at conſiderable length; and the numerous inconveniences and diſappointments to which the planter is expoſed, are enumerated. Monticello, the habitation of Mr. Jefferſon, engages much of our author's attention; probably the more, as he is a partiſan of France. Except the houſe, however, which is built with much taſte and ſimplicity, we find little to commend.

On the top of the Blue Mountains, near the ſource of James's River, are the warm and hot ſprings, at 92° and 112° of Fahrenheit reſpectively: the ſweet ſprings, which are cold, are forty miles diſtant. The firſt are ſaid to be uſeful in rheumatic complaints, and ſeem not to poſſeſs any particular advantages independent of their temperature. The Vale of the Shenandoah, ſo extravagantly praiſed, poſſeſſed few charms in our author's view: indeed he admits that his enthuſiaſm is greatly cooled. The river which gives the name to the vale joins the Potomack; and their united waters immediately burſt through the barrier of the Blue Mountains, forming the weſtern boundary of Maryland. Some of the duke's general remarks on Virginia may be ſelected.

'Nature has done much for Virginia, perhaps more than for any other ſtate of the union. The ſoil is, in general, good, and extremely varied; the climate, no doubt, is rather hot in ſummer; the heat, however, is but little troubleſome, for the inhabitants are eaſily accuſtomed to it; on approaching or paſſing the mountains it becomes more moderate, and tolerable even in the midſt of ſummer: vegetation is wonderfully powerful in Virginia, and the climate favours the culture of almoſt all known productions. Virginia, it is true, has no port on the Atlantic; but ſhe poſſeſſes a multiplicity of harbours on her numerous and beautiful rivers, the navigation of which admits of ſailing up very high to receive the produce of remote diſtricts; and, as has been already obſerved, the ſituation of North-Carolina is ſuch, that the overplus of the produce in grain of that extenſive ſtate muſt in a great meaſure paſs through the hands of the merchants of Virginia. The want of ſea-ports, which is not attended with any inconvenience for Virginia, is, on the other hand, productive of the great advantage of being ſecure in time of war from the inſults of the enemy, who, in order to burn its towns or plunder the country, would be obliged either to land in another ſtate, or to venture into the Cheſapeak. Theſe immenſe advantages are incontrovertibly poſſeſſed by Virginia, whoſe lower parts, although unhealthful, yet are not more ſo

than thoſe of Maryland, of ſome diſtricts of Pennſylvania, and of the ſtate of New-York, and are certainly more ſalubrious than the lower parts of the two Carolinas and Georgia. Virginia alſo enjoys the great additional advantage of being almoſt entirely free from all dangerous animals. The rattle-ſnake is uncommon to ſuch a degree, that a great many inhabitants who live in the woods never heard it mentioned.' Vol. ii. P. 111.

'The total value of the exports of the different ports of Virginia amounted in the year 1791 to 3,131,863 dollars; in 1792 to 3,542,823; in 1793 to 2,987,097; in 1794 to 3,320,636; and in 1795 to 3.490,043 dollars.

'The population of Virginia ſhould ſeem very conſiderable, if we reflect that this ſtate ſends twenty-one members to the congreſs of the union, and that the population of each ſtate ſhould regulate the number of its repreſentatives at that general council. But this population, which by the cenſus of 1791 amounts to ſeven hundred and forty-ſeven thouſand ſix hundred and ten perſons, comprizes two hundred and ninety-ſeven thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-ſeven-ſlaves. The area of the ſtate contains ſeventy thouſand ſquare miles; this makes per ſquare mile about ten two thirds of inhabitants, three ſevenths of whom are negro ſlaves. The population of the whites, which is undoubtedly increaſed by reproduction, gains nothing by migration; for no Virginian will deny, that the ſtate is loſing every year more by the emigration of its inhabitants than it obtains emigrants from other ſtates; ſo that this population, if well counted, is, perhaps, inferior to that of any other ſtate of the union. In a great part of Virginia the heat of the climate, and the uſe of ſlaves, render that claſs of men idle and averſe to labour, who in the other ſtates, under different circumſtances, are ſpurred on to induſtry and activity by indigence and want. We find, accordingly, that a leſs quantity of land is cultivated here, in proportion to the extent and population of the country, than in other ſtates, and that but very few branches of induſtry have gained ground in Virginia, although the country is fitted for all thoſe which have been eſtabliſhed in other parts of the United States. There is no ſtate ſo entirely deſtitute of all means of public education as Virginia; and it may be fairly ſaid, that the only college ſhe poſſeſſes is the moſt imperfect in point of inſtruction, and the worſt managed of any of the union. On a candid conſideration of theſe circumſtances, it is impoſſible to praiſe with any degree of juſtice the power of the ſtate of Virginia.' Vol. ii. P. 114.

M. de la Rochefoucault acquits the Virginians of a deſign of withdrawing with the ſouthern ſtates from the union; yet ſome facts incidentally occur which ſhow ſuch views. In general, the Virginians are hoſpitable, but extravagant, careleſs, and much addicted to gambling; active, ſpirited, and en-

terprising. Of the mineralogy of this tour, the ſtatements relative to the coal mines, and the vein of lime-ſtone reſembling ſchiſtus, near the Blue Mountains, are the moſt important parts.

'At Dover, where the coal-mines which we viſited are ſituated, the ſoil conſiſts chiefly of a ſand-ſtone, interſperſed with fragments of granite, which when broken preſerve the original texture of the ſtone. It is in theſe layers that the coal is found in immediate contact with ſtone of a ſandy or argillaceous compoſition, and with a blue clay. That part of the country which contains the coal-mines is about ten miles in breadth, but its length is not yet aſcertained; it croſſes James-River. The ſtrata of coal are in general thicker at the extremities and where they lie neareſt to the ſurface of the ground; their direction, which is from weſt to eaſt, forms with the horizon a very obtuſe angle. As ſoon as you leave this diſtrict, you meet again with granite, which now lies in layers, is interſperſed with mica, and ſeems in ſeveral inſtances to be a real cryſtallization. The ſoil is a hard clay. Some miles from Milton, at the foot of the South Mountains, there is a vein of lime-ſtone, formed like ſchiſtus, and placed between layers of perfect ſlate. When calcined, it yields excellent lime. This vein runs in a ſouth-weſt direction as far as the river Roanoke in North-Carolina, that is, one hundred and forty miles, and upwards of ſixty miles towards the north-eaſt. It is in no inſtances more than ten feet thick, and frequently leſs. In all the ſurrounding fields are found large detached maſſes of white quartz, reſting on layers of blue ſchiſtus; and likewiſe ſtrata of a greeniſh grey colour.' Vol. ii. p. 119.

Another tour commenced at Philadelphia. The duke went by ſea to Honnington, and by land to Providence; thence to Boſton and into New Hampſhire; proceeded weſtward till he reached Hudſon's River at Kinder Hook, a little below Albany, and returned to New-York, in the direction of that river. In his account of this journey, he does not greatly improve our knowledge of the nature of the ſoil, or the natural hiſtory of the country through which he paſſed. In general, though the inhabitants of the Maſſachuſetts ſuffered greatly in the war, and were foremoſt in reſiſting the mother country, the duke acknowledges, ſometimes with regret or reſentment, that the Britiſh intereſt prevails. The character of the inhabitants of that territory is not well drawn or very comprehenſive: they are, in general, plain, induſtrious, and plodding, but are occaſionally ſpeculators in a great degree, reſembling in this reſpect the Virginians; for ſpeculation and gambling differ little in the principles from which they proceed.

Near Katſkill, nearly the northernmoſt point of Hudſon's

River which he reached, there is a ſeries of hills, one of which ſunk near the top, about a third part of the extent of its ſurface, next the river; a circumſtance attributed, perhaps with juſtice, to its being undermined by the water. A deſcription of one of the proſpects on the Hudſon's River we will quote.

'The navigation from Newburg to Weſt-Point preſents one of the moſt grand and majeſtic views that can be ſeen in any part of the world. The river, exceeding two miles in width, narrows its ſtream to paſs between the mountains, in a channel whoſe breadth is not more than half a mile. The mountains through which it forces its way, though not very lofty, exhibit the moſt beautiful, the moſt variegated, and the moſt majeſtic forms. In ſome places we behold maſſes of rock towering in perpendicular altitude, and threatening each moment to cruſh in their fall whatever paſſes beneath their feet. In other parts their form is more inclined: but here they are leſs naked, and bear a few oaks, a few pines, a few cedars, which grow on the rocks, though the eye cannot diſcover the earth which nouriſhes them. Again, theſe great mountains recede from each other, and their place on the banks of the ſtream is occupied by little hills, of fertile ſoil, and in many parts cultivated. The river inceſſantly winds through theſe different mountains; and the proſpect here is incomparably more beautiful than that of the junction of the Potomack and the Shenandoah in the Blue-Ridge.

'Weſt-Point is in the narroweſt part of this paſſage, which is eighteen miles in length. It is a promontory which advances a conſiderable way into the natural bed of the river, and forces the ſtream in a forward direction, where another mountain on the oppoſite ſhore preſents to it an obſtacle equally unſurmountable, and drives it back to the ſide which it had quitted; ſo that the water abſolutely ſurrounds this ſpot, which, by its poſition, commands the navigation of that great river. Its channel at Weſt-Point does not exceed a quarter of a mile in breadth. This is the poſt that general Arnold intended to betray to general Clinton. The former at that time commanded the advanced guard of the American army; and the accompliſhment of his ſcheme would for a long time have retarded the termination of the war. I have ſeen the houſe in which the interviews took place between that traitor and the unfortunate major André: it was that where Arnold had his headquarters; it ſtands at the diſtance of a mile from Weſt-Point, and on the oppoſite bank.' Vol. ii. P. 236.

The next tour is to the fœderal city of Waſhington, the intended capital of the United States. As we have already copied a pictureſque deſcription of beautiful ſcenery, we will add one of an oppoſite caſt, in the vicinity of the preſent capital, Philadelphia,

'From this spot to Chester, ——— there is not one agreeable prospect. The country is flat without being smooth; the floods render it uneven in some places, but the ridges of the banks which they form are all of one shape and level. The whole of the land is in a state of cultivation, and woods are only found in clumps. Cultivation however is neglected. Several houses built with pieces of rock, cemented with a mortar of earth; a few, which are the neatest, built with bricks; and a great number of block-houses; are the only objects to be met with. Huts formed of logs and planks of wood, as miserable as any that are to be seen in the poorest parts of France, cover the country. The inhabitant here is proprietor and cultivator: that he lives as he pleases, must be admitted; but in the most remote and uninhabited parts of America that I have visited, I have never seen a greater proportion of wretched habitations. The men and women who are seen issuing from their huts are badly clothed, and bear every mark of poverty. The children are in rags, and almost naked. The present moment however is by no means favourable to the appearance of the country. Nothing yet appears above the ground, except the corn, of which there is but a small quantity in this part of the country. The water of the creeks, which we cross, and that of the Delaware, which is frequently in sight, is muddy, and of the same yellow colour as the banks which confine it; and the eternal wooden enclosures, which of themselves are sufficient to throw a gloom over the most delightful landscape, add to the dreariness of this, and to the tints of melancholy with which the season of the year colours the scene.' Vol. i, p. 246.

The description of the Brandy-Wine mills is very full and clear; their construction merits particular attention, and is superior to that which reflected so much credit on the architect of the Albion mills. In this tour our author visited the state of Delaware, and the eastern parts of Maryland. The lands, in these districts, are poor in themselves, and are managed with little skill. The political reflexions, in this part of the volume, are solid, judicious, and humane. When not warped by party spirit or national interest, the writer claims our attention; and, though sometimes too hasty and indiscriminate in his decisions, he frequently merits our praise. His remarks on the extent of the fields, the want of steadiness and spirit in manuring, and the neglect of quick fences, are highly proper; and his accounts of the political situation and constitutions of these little states are dispassionate and probably correct. The American planters do not greatly extend their views: 'sufficient unto the day' are its blessings and misfortunes. With this want of forecast a worse quality is sometimes combined—an unsteadiness in the plans which they undertake. Hasty in their resolutions, they seldom persevere, so as to complete their designs.

Our author paſſed the Cheſapeak, through Kent's Iſland and proceeded to Annapolis, which he repreſents as a moſt pleaſing reſidence. He dwells on the hiſtory, conſtitution, and laws, of Maryland; but from this part we need not offer any extract. The plan and object of the fœderal city are deſcribed at length, with the progreſs and the fate of various ſpeculations, which, as uſual in America, were with eagerneſs begun and purſued as ſoon as the determination of congreſs was known. It is built on the conflux of the Potomack, with a navigable creek, and is deſigned for the ſeat of government as well as for a commercial city. The object of the American government was to eſtabliſh, in the centre of the whole, a little fœderal diſtrict belonging to the union, unconnected with any ſtate, to prevent the confuſion which might ariſe from the laws of a particular ſtate, to make the aſſembling in congreſs equally eaſy to all, and to remove all jealouſy of a preference to any one ſtate. The plan, however, though ſplendid and faſcinating, is deluſive. It is too vaſt for the preſent finances of the United States; and, as the preſident's houſe and the capitol are in diſtant quarters, the exertions, of which the union or the holders of ſhares will for many years be capable, will ſcarcely fill the ſpace with a ſingle ſtreet. At this moment the inhabitants of Waſhington, to viſit their neighbours *at the next houſe*, have two or three miles to travel through woods. Should, however, the union continue, theſe inconveniences will leſſen; but our author predicts its diſſolution, of which, however, no ſtrong ſigns are yet obſervable.

Our traveller paſſed a little to the ſouth to Alexandria, a neat and thriving town, and returned to Baltimore, whoſe commerce is rapidly increaſing, but is on a precarious footing, from the probable increaſe of Havre, from the inland navigation deſigned to avoid the falls of the Potomack, and, above all, from the projected union of the Cheſapeak and Delaware. In each of theſe ſchemes, ſome difficulties are produced by want of money, jarring intereſts, and perhaps the natural impediments ariſing from difference of level, the nature of the country, direction of the currents, &c. The duke returned by the weſtern banks of the Suſquehanna to Elktown, and thence to Philadelphia.

His general obſervations on Maryland chiefly relate to negro ſlavery, and the ſtate of ſociety in that country, but offer nothing peculiarly intereſting. Some of the mineralogical remarks may be quoted.

'One of the moſt remarkable features of this peninſula (included between the Cheſapeak and Delaware) is, that the rivers are divided by a ſucceſſion of ſwamps, from which the water runs toward the Delaware or the Cheſapeak, although the ground does not appear to the eye to be more elevated than the reſt of the coun-

ry. There is another fact still more extraordinary—the bushes and plants which grow in these morasses are of the same kind as those which are found on the highest mountains.

'In the western part of Maryland, small round iron-stones are found in considerable quantities. The soil is for the most part sand, which covers a compact clay. As one approaches Federal-City the country is not so flat, the hills are more diversified, and are generally higher. On the site of Federal-City the banks and beds of the stream are covered with granite, like the borders of the Potomack. The rocks that occasion the falls of the Potomack are free-stone.

'The banks of the Potomack, below the falls, and especially from George-Town to a spot near Alexandria, exhibit the same appearance of successive terraces as those in Connecticut, of which I have already spoken; but not altogether so remarkable. The environs of Alexandria are filled with beds of large oyster-shells, like those that are so frequently found in Lower Virginia. Between Federal-City and Baltimore the ground is frequently full of iron ore. Near the Snowden-works are rocks among which are sometimes found pieces of granite and feld-spath. In the neighbourhood of Baltimore the ground is sand with clay; and gravel is found considerably strong.

'Between Baltimore and Havre-de-Grace is found argillaceous schistus, and the soil is of clay and of a red colour. On the banks of rivers and creeks, and on the sides of mountains, are masses of stone.' Vol. ii. p. *363.

Under the article of residence at Philadelphia, the origin and constitution of the state, its civil, criminal, and military laws, and its commerce, are described. The manners of the people are also noticed.

The next tour was to Bethlehem, the famous seat of the Moravians, and to different parts of the Jerseys. Bethlehem is situated nearly north of Philadelphia. This seat, where the religion and policy of the Moravians are united in all their strictness, has been often described; nor can we perceive that M. de Liancourt has added greatly to the accounts of former travellers. The following new arrangements, however, are interesting, and not very generally known.

'By the present ordonnances, the communion of property is done away in favour of the individuals; it only continues as to the government of the society, and it exists partially. The territorial property, as well as the profits of the tavern, the store, the farm, the saw-mills, oil-mills, corn-mills, and fulling-mills, the tannery, and the dyeing manufactory, belong to the society, which from these funds is enabled to provide for the poor, for the payment of debts, and of the public taxes. In all other respects every brother

enjoys the absolute property of whatever he can earn by his labour; be it what it may, and of the gifts which he may receive.

'The government of the society is vested in the bishop, the minister, the intendant, and the inspectors, male and female, of the different divisions of the society, which are five in number;—the young men unmarried; the unmarried sisters; the widows; the married brethren and sisters, and the schools. The intendant has the exclusive administration of the property of the society; but he must advise with a committee, composed of from eight to ten members, and chosen by the brethren at large. In the name of the intendant they carry on all their transactions, grant leases of houses and lands, securities for borrowed money, discharges, &c. All the houses, however, erected in the town of Bethlehem, and the four thousand acres belonging to it, are not the property of the society, nor even the greater part of them; they belong to brethren, who have built upon land for which they pay rent to the society. The amount of this rent is two-pence the foot in front, by twenty feet in depth. The house built by the brother is his absolute property; he can leave it to his wife or his children, in the same way as he can his other effects, or he can sell it; only he cannot convey it but to a brother, who has obtained from the directory permission to purchase it, with the burthen of the rent attached to it, and which perpetually remains.

The directors having the government of the society, must admit into their territory those only who they think will not disturb the society. In the contracts of lease made by the intendant, with the advice of the committee, to those intending to build a house, or to those who purchase a house, it is always stipulated, that if the proprietor shall be desirous of quitting it, and cannot find a purchaser who may be agreeable to the society, the society is to purchase it at a price declared by a law, which also fixes the terms of payment. Garden ground, or land in the country, is let at six shillings the acre. Besides the government farm, appropriated to the benefit of the society, there are six or seven smaller farms belonging to it. These are let to tenants who pay a third part of their produce, and who also pay six shillings of rent for their garden grounds. These tenants are all at present Moravians; but this condition is nowise indispensable. Sometimes the farms are let to other persons, only the society must be satisfied as to their character and behaviour; and they will not receive as tenants those of whom they have not received a satisfactory account.

'The society could easily procure a higher price, and might at once clear two thousand five hundred acres, which still remain in wood, if they would admit strangers, or at least not reserve to themselves this choice of those who offer to take their farms; but they are desirous beyond every thing of preserving what they call good order, union, and morality; and to this they sacrifice the augmentation of their revenues.' Vol. ii. p. 399.

'The ſociety of the Moravians is an oligarchical republic. Each of the eſtabliſhments in Europe and America names one or more deputies to the ſynod, ſuch deputy or deputies being elected by the brethren at large. The particular directory of each ſociety is alſo entitled to appoint one deputy. The great expence of travelling, which is defrayed by the ſocieties who ſend the deputies, induces the directories of the American ſocieties to delegate their powers to thoſe named by the brethren. The biſhops are entitled, if they think proper, to attend the ſynod, independent of the other deputies of the ſociety to which they belong. In the ſynod, when aſſembled, is veſted the ſovereignty. They alone have a right to alter the regulations, as well ſpiritual as temporal; they confirm or annul the appointment of the principal officers made during their receſs; and finally, they receive the accounts of all the general concerns, and decide thereon ultimately;—they are convened every ſeven years, and remain aſſembled for two or three months; they name a college, compoſed of thirteen members, who, during their receſs, manage the general affairs of the unity, appoint the principal officers, direct the miſſions, regulate the affairs, intereſt, diſcipline, &c. The ſittings of the college are held a league from Hernutt in Upper Luſatia; their functions continue during the receſs of the ſynod. On the meeting of the ſynod their powers ceaſe, and they are re-eſtabliſhed by the ſynod at the end of their ſeſſion, either from among the former members, or new ones are appointed, according to the will of the ſynod.' Vol. ii. p. 403.

Communications between the young men and women are forbidden. The young man aſks for the perſon whoſe appearance pleaſes him; and, if the directors think the match ſuitable, the ceremony takes place; for they wiſh to encourage marriages. As young perſons, however, are not very fond of this diſtant courtſhip, marriages are not numerous, and the ſociety is on the decline.

The tour to the Jerſeys, and the hiſtorical account of the ſtate, with its conſtitution, &c. offer nothing of particular novelty and importance. The hiſtorical and ſtatiſtical account of New York is better compacted than ſome of the ſimilar parts in this tour, but muſt be read entire. The account of Koſciuſzko, who has retired to America, a country which he ſerved in the war of the revolution, is unuſually animated; but this will not ſurpriſe us, when we conſider that Koſciuſzko was the warm votary of liberty, and a victim in her ſervice.

The 'general obſervations on the United States' are full and valuable. What relates to their new conſtitution is of courſe tinged with the author's peculiar opinions; and Franklin, a decided enemy to two mutually balancing aſſemblies, is adduced as the friend of democracy. The following candid remarks of our traveller, however, merit particular notice.

'It is not my design here to enter into a minute examination of the merits of the constitution of the United States. The information I have gathered as to the situation of affairs, and the temper of parties, at the period of its adoption, induces me to believe that it is the best which could at that time be carried into execution. I shall confine myself to speak of its principal and inherent defect; which I regard as an obstacle to the public welfare in any constitution where it is found. I confess there is some degree of boldness in speaking thus freely on this topic; for what I consider to be a fundamental defect in the constitution of the United States, is viewed by almost every American as its most valuable quality. I am alluding to the federal form of the government. I admit the conception to be of a sublime nature, and calculated to delight in theory. Sovereign states ceding to a general government part of their authority, for the public benefit, presents, in a more fascinating way than ordinary, the image of men united in society, making a sacrifice of a portion of their rights and liberties for the secure enjoyment of the rest, and for the general prosperity; but experience will shew this scheme, pleasing as it is to the imagination, illusory, and incapable of execution. The propensities of governments have a power, of a nature and extent very different from that of individuals; their apparent motives are much more plausible; and the suppression of them by force is much less prompt, and less easy in the execution, than that of the passions of individuals—meanwhile they inherently oppose themselves to the advantages that form the object of the compact, which is the general welfare of the union.' Vol. ii. P. 505.

Two striking instances, where the interests of union were defeated by the jarring interests of particular states, are added. The present political state of the American republic is discussed with greater candour than we could have expected from a warm partisan of France and her political system. M. de Liancourt, however, asserts that Mr. Jay, in settling the commercial treaty with Britain, exceeded his powers, and that the president was unwilling, for a long time, to bring forward the subject in congress; but this rests on very equivocal evidence. On the contrary, the appointment of Mr. Jay, with British habits and predilections, shows that the late president was eager to unite with this country. We trust that this wise and enlightened policy of Washington will be seen in America in its true light, and that she will have no reason to repent her union, the strings of which are daily drawing closer. In this part of the work, the author admits that France has less of a party in America than Britain. We shall select a short account of the state of American politics.

'I have here undertaken only to state facts, in order to give an idea of the state of these parties. Yet I cannot but observe, that

the names of *federalist* and *anti-federalist*, by which they are most commonly known, are as little conformable to the meaning of these words as the denominations *English adherents* and *French adherents*, which they mutually give to each other. Their several objects are, to give the constitution a monarchical or a republican tendency; and to find, in the ambiguity of parts of its text, an authority for their designs, as circumstances happen to favour one or the other. Both the parties are attached to the union; and I am persuaded that the *anti-federalists* cannot, with the least justice, be reproached with being less so than their opponents. The one is the governing party, the other is in opposition; and we know that when parties have long combated with each other, their original objects become secondary. Their love of power, and their hatred of each other, are motives continually acting upon them; and every occasion of gratifying their rage, jealousy, and ambition, is mutually seized by them. It is to be ignorant of the passions of party, not to know that they are as tumultuous as any that can agitate and torment individuals and society. The imputation of being adherents of France or England, is as unfounded as the other. The leaders of one party look to England as the natural support of their power, especially since France became a republic: but they do not wish to subjugate America to English influence. It is said, and not without the appearance of probability, that there are individuals among them who carry their attachment to England something further than this; having in contemplation, either the re-union of America to England, or the establishment of a monarchy with a house of peers, that shall be closely and permanently allied to Great Britain. But if there are such, as will be readily enough believed, they are not the whole of those leaders, and they do not admit the rest into their secret; for in that case they would soon see the number of their adherents diminish. It is by exciting a hatred of some of the measures of France, and, by a common fraud, turning that hatred against France herself, that these persons endeavour to execute that project, while they conceal from their partizans their real designs.' Vol. ii. P. 522.

M. de Liancourt mentions the three states added to the union, viz. Kentucky, Vermont, and Tenassee; the last under the appellation of the government of the territories on the south of the Ohio. The province of Maine, now a part of Massachusets, claims independence, and a vast district on the north-west of the Ohio is attached to the sovereignty of the union; but, though this territory contains above 250 millions of acres, the population of white persons does not amount to 4000—one to 62,500 acres. What relates to the finances and commerce of the United States is truly valuable. The tonnage of America has rapidly increased, while that of other nations has declined; that of Britain is greatly lessened.

The imports from Britain have, however, been gradually increasing; and, in 1795, were valued at 5,254,114*l.* while only the value of 1,352,136*l.* was exported. The balance of exchange with this country is consequently against the United States, though the author admits, that the trade with other countries may be favourable. The disadvantages are eagerly dilated by the duke, who declaims against the progress of luxury. He is not aware that the corn, cattle, and hides, of the America republic, will in time contribute to a counterbalance, when Ireland shall become a more commercial country than it is at present. He enlarges on the advantages which would accrue to the former from the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in which he displays a short-sighted policy. The exports of the United States are, however, increasing, having advanced from about nineteen millions of dollars, in 1791, to about sixty-seven millions in 1796.

'This statement exhibits a progressive augmentation, such perhaps as never existed in any country in so short a space of time. But this is the place to repeat what I have said as often as I have had an opportunity of speaking of the exports of different states, that any one would be grossly deceived who should judge of the increase of the produce and resources of the United States by this enormous augmentation of their exports.

'The exports consist,

'1. Of the productions of the country, which, although increased in quantity to a certain degree, have risen much more in value; some forty per cent. others a hundred, two hundred, and even more. This is owing to the wants of Europe, exhausted by the war in which it has been engaged. The value then of these exports is far from being an exact representation of the real wealth of the country, which can only be the result of an increase in the quantity of its produce.

'2. The war, in which all the commercial powers have been engaged for five years more or less, keeps their trade in a state of almost total stagnation. The United States are a kind of temporary *depot* of the produce of all countries, and of many of their colonies, where, before the war, American vessels had not, by a great deal, so extensive a permission to trade. Foreign produce is therefore brought into the ports of the United States in much greater quantities than their consumption requires, and in much greater quantities also than it would be if Europe were at peace.

'The commodities over and above the consumption of the United States are re-exported, and supply the different states of Europe and their colonies.

'This increased exportation is then, in this point of view, a very uncertain indication of the real increase of the wealth of the United States, since it does not depend upon the produce of their

soil, and neither is nor can be lasting. A comparison of the quantity of the produce of the soil of the United States exported annually, during six years, will furnish an incontestible proof of the truth of the foregoing observations.' Vol. ii. P. 587.

The exportation of all kinds of corn is diminished, as well as of tobacco; and the diminution of the export of wheat is not counterbalanced by the augmented exportation of flour. Grazing has, however, in some degree, taken place of tillage; and the exports of cheese, butter, tallow, candles, and shoes, as well as of the fisheries, are greatly increased. On the whole, the particular evidence of the author does not confirm his statement to the extent which he has represented; but the whole of his account of the trade of the United States with England demonstrates the amazing commercial advantages reaped by the latter, since the establishment of American independence. That the American commerce, which has risen so rapidly, will be of short duration, our author endeavours to prove; but we have rarely seen arguments so weak, and so little attention paid to the history of commerce in different nations, modern as well as ancient. It is equally useless to detail or to refute this reasoning.

The other parts of this volume contain an account of the dealings in land, in which are some circumstances of curiosity, and some of importance to the emigrant; of the military establishment of the United States; connexions with the Indians; naturalisation; population; coin; climate; manners, &c. The population, in 1791, was four millions; and M. de Liancourt rapidly advances to the period when the population will be proportioned to that of France; when the United States will contain eighty millions, which is to happen in 1876! It requires little knowledge of political arithmetic to foretell the downfall of this prophecy, though the territory of which we are speaking will undoubtedly become much more populous and thriving than it is at present.

Of the manners of the inhabitants, our author gives a pleasing description; but of their literary institutions, and their classical acquisitions, the prospect is less favourable. Having had occasion to speak of their 'transactions,' we need not enlarge on this subject. A few short passages, though our article has reached beyond its intended length, we may select.

'The striking difference there is between the animal and vegetable productions of the two hemispheres is far from being applicable to the mineral kingdom. The form of mountains, rocks, and beds of different minerals in North America, are the same as those of the old world. There are found there different species of granite, combined and varied as in the mountains of Europe; in-

numerable kinds of schistes; of lime-stones, more or less perfect, and more or less fine; and minerals of almost every species. Upon the east coast of the Atlantic, from the bay of Penobscot, as far as Georgia, and, I am assured, from thence as far as the mouth of the Missisippi, there are not any stones found of a secondary species, or such of which any traces of the mode of their formation can be discovered; they are all of the granite kind, containing in them veins of quartz, calcareous spar, marble, and different sorts of minerals; but none of them shew any traces of vegetable or animal productions enveloped in their beds.

'The mountains of Canada, those of Lakes George and Champlain, and of the Alleghanies excepted, the summits of all the others are flat, and appear evidently to have been formed upon the same horizontal level. In short, every thing in the mineral kingdom exhibits signs of a country more recently quitted by the waters than the three other parts of the world.' Vol. ii. p. 656.

'The traits of character common to all, are ardour for enterprise, courage, greediness, and an advantageous opinion of themselves. The title of *the most enlightened nation of the whole world*, which the committee of the house of representatives appointed to propose the answer of the house to the address of the president, in December 1796, has given to the people of the United States, will be of itself a proof of that good opinion they have of themselves, which I give as a common characteristic, especially if it be known with what labour, and after what long discussions, the house determined to make the sacrifice of this superlative, with which the modesty of the majority of the United States had not been embarrassed. I quote this example as the most striking and the most national; but, to tell the truth, almost all the books printed in America, and the individual conversations of the Americans, furnish proofs of it daily. This character, which none of those, I believe, who have seen America will deny to be that of the United States, is an exaggeration proceeding from the newness of their establishments, and will wear out in time. Their courage will be more exceptionable still to those who have the slightest knowledge of the war for independency. Habituated to fatigue from their infancy, having for the most part made their fortune by their labour and their industry, fatigue and labour are not yet become repugnant even to those in the most easy circumstances; while they wish to enjoy the ease and sweets of life, they do not regard them as absolute wants; they know how to dispense with them, and to quit them and travel in the woods, whenever their interest requires it; they can forget them, whenever a reverse of fortune takes them away; and they know how to run after fortune when she escapes them; for, as I have often said before, the desire of riches is their ruling passion, and indeed their only passion.' Vol. ii. p. 657.

The instruction, imperfect as it is, which they reap in the college is soon lost in the commerce of the world; and the *auri sacra fames*, in this as in other countries, devours every atom of patriotism. The Americans must be truly rivals of the Dutch, if, as is here asserted, they could arm privateers in the ports of France for the purpose of plundering their own countrymen. Of the simplicity of manners in the back settlements, our author speaks advantageously. Bundling (he calls it *bondelage*) is an argument, he thinks, of purity of intention; and the first proof of a diminution of that purity was the idea of impropriety in such an arrangement. But our article is already too long; and, having given a sufficient idea of the designs of our traveller, and the general execution of his work, we shall leave him and his intentions to be ultimately appreciated by the public and by posterity. We have little doubt of the confirmation of our verdict.

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AS we have lately, in our account of the first volume of Dr. Aikin's and Dr. Enfield's Biographical Dictionary, concisely noticed and appreciated the different plans adopted or proposed for similar works, we need not greatly enlarge on this subject, especially when we are to examine a new edition of a dictionary whose merit has been attested by public approbation.

The first edition appeared in 1761, in 12 vols. 8vo. A general biography, within the limits of that edition, must have comprised only the principal events of the lives, and could contain no critical remarks either on the works or the opinions of each author. The public, however, received this compacted body of facts with respect, though it was more meagre than many wished it to be, and was deformed by inelegant and colloquial language. In 1784, a new edition appeared, in the same number of volumes, but more bulky, and with a fuller page. The editors then professed, that they had added six hundred new lives, besides the additions to others, and those corrections which rendered many of the lives of the former edition in a great measure new. More was indeed

professed than they seem to have performed. Some of the retrenchments were hasty and injudicious, and the new lives were not always important.

In the present edition, the whole work seems to have been revised with uncommon care. The new lives are numerous; and, though they are not always those of men highly esteemed in science, or in their particular departments, yet, if they have ever been the objects of notice, some account of them should certainly be preserved. We have formerly remarked, that no compiler can judge of what will be of importance to every reader, and each requires that, in a work like this, his own difficulties should be removed, his own doubts resolved.

'Yet they' (the compilers) 'will not pledge themselves that students versed in particular branches of science may not occasionally find a foreigner omitted, or too slightly mentioned, whom they may know to deserve more particular attention. Among the names belonging to our own country, some will doubtless be found who will hardly be thought deserving of a place in a work of general biography. But conceiving this to be the natural tendency of such works, and thinking it very allowable for authors in every nation to write more particularly for their countrymen than for any others, we have not been greatly solicitous to avoid it. At the same time, we have not omitted to consider, that if every person who attains a certain rank in the learned or active professions, were admitted to claim a place in such a repository, its extent would become too enormous to be useful.' Vol. i. p. vi.

Selection of objects the present compilers, as usual, find difficult. Distant merit can seldom be appreciated but by fame, which itself wants a corrector; and scientific acquisitions must rest on the partial, sometimes interested, reports of those who have studied the branch of knowledge which has distinguished the candidate for a niche in the repository. Were we required to decide, we might say that the present editors manifest too great a facility of conceding their honours rather than a harshness in refusing them; but we must recollect our own assertion, that it is impossible to determine what each reader may want, or what the same person may require at different times. We should, at the first publication of this new edition, have rejected some information from which we have since derived important advantage. So different, even in a short period, is the judgement which we can form of redundancies and defects. Perhaps the admirers of fashion will not consider the omission of Lady Miller's life as a proof of too great facility in receiving, and the antiquarian may equally regret the neglect of Dr. Jeremiah Milles. Both occur in the Appendix of the last edition; and both *might* have had a place in this.

'Besides adding the names which were deficient, attention has been employed throughout to improve the style, and correct the prominent errors of the former work. That these various ends might be attained within a moderate time, the proprietors divided the care of the undertaking between three literary men. For the first five volumes one gentleman is entirely responsible; the remaining ten were consigned to two writers, who, for no very important reason, chose to take them alternately. Though the work is apparently extended only by the addition of three volumes, the actual augmentation is much greater; the volumes being not only, in general, thicker than before, but so printed, as to contain in each page four or five lines more, than a page of the preceding edition. On the whole, the work is presented to the public with some confidence; from the knowledge that if every thing has not been done, which a very rigorous examiner might expect, much more has been performed than is usually attempted in reprinting any approved work; and much more than, without such a division of the labour as we have just now stated, could have been completed within the time employed upon it.' Vol. i. P. vii.

The lives added or re-written are very numerous; nor have we remarked (and we have compared different parts with no common care) any important omissions. On the whole, this edition is very comprehensive and satisfactory.

Where so much novelty is dispersed, to give a particular account of the whole is impracticable. After this historical view of the different editions, and general one of the present, we must close our article with a few specimens.

The life of father Boscovich, one of the ablest of the modern philosophers, is short yet comprehensive: we will quote it entire, as his merits are not generally known.

'Boscovich (Joseph Roger), a famous geometrician and astronomer, born at Ragusa the 18th of May 1711, died at Milan the 12th of February 1787, entered in 1725 of the society of Jesus, and was successively professor of mathematics at Rome, at Pavia, and at Milan. The jesuits having been suppressed in Italy in 1773, the patrons he had in France invited him to Paris. By their interest he obtained the title of director of the optical instruments of the marine, with a pension of 8000 livres; this was an inducement to him to extend his researches towards the newest and most difficult part of optics: the theory of achromatic glasses. It employs a third part of 5 vols. 4to. which he published in 1785; containing new and important observations. Some circumstances obliged him to quit Paris in 1783, to go and have his works printed in Italy. He retired to Milan; where he was held in high consideration till his death. The emperor charged him with inspecting the commission for measuring a degree which he had ordered to be done in Lombardy. The abbé Boscovich was known to be expert

in ſuch operations. In 1750, the cardinal Valenti having given orders for meaſuring degrees in Italy, our aſtronomer undertook the buſineſs conjointly with father Maire. The reſult of it was a good book in 4to. tranſlated into French, and printed at Paris in 1770. Another work of the abbé Boſcovich, publiſhed in 1758 and 1763, is upon the different laws of nature and that of attraction, conſidered as a conſequence of an univerſal law, to which he recurs with no leſs ſagacity than depth of knowledge in mathematics and metaphyſics. Few men have ever brought theſe two ſciences into ſo exquiſite and uſeful a conjunction. Yet he had none of that barrenneſs of fancy which uſually accompanies a great proficiency in them. Poetry filled up much of his time. His Latin poem on eclipſes, De ſolis ac lunæ defectibus, which was firſt printed in London, is as remarkable for the elegance of its ſtyle, as for the talent of putting into harmonious verſe the moſt intricate matters of theory and calculation. The abbé Boſcovich, always amiable in company, to which he willingly reſorted, compoſed verſes with the greateſt facility, and his ready genius dictated them to him in the courſe of converſation, for the entertainment of his friends of both ſexes; for the moſt inflexible virtue of every ſpecies was never any impediment with him in the agreeable diſplay of ſocial qualities. He had travelled in all parts of Europe, and even in Turkey. The narrative of this laſt expedition was printed firſt in French, and afterwards in Italian.' Vol. ii. P. 489.

The life of the late Dr. John Monro is written with great care; and his character is placed in a point of view in which it has been ſeldom contemplated.

'Monro (John), an eminent phyſician, was deſcended from the antient family of that name, in the county of Roſs, in North Britain; and was born at Greenwich, in the county of Kent, on the 16th of November, 1715, O. S. His grandfather, Dr. Alexander Monro, was principal of the univerſity of Edinburgh, and, juſt before the revolution in 1688, had been nominated by king James the IId. to fill the vacant ſee of the Orkneys; but the alteration, which took place in the church-eſtabliſhment of Scotland at that period, prevented his obtaining poſſeſſion of this biſhopric: and the friendſhip which prevailed between him and the celebrated lord Dundee, the avowed opponent of king William, added to his being thought averſe to the new order of things, expoſed him to much perſecution from the ſupporters of the revolution, and occaſioned him to retire from Edinburgh to London, whither he brought with him his only ſon, then a child. James Monro, the ſon of Dr. Alexander, after taking his academical degrees in the univerſity of Oxford, practiſed with much ſucceſs as a phyſician in London; and, dedicating his ſtudies principally to the inveſtigation of that branch of medicine which profeſſes to relieve the miſeries ariſing from inſanity, was elected phyſician to the hoſpitals of Bridewell and Bethlem.

'Dr. John Monro was the eldest son of Dr. James, and was educated at Merchant-Tailors school in London, whence he was removed in 1723 to St. John's college, Oxford, of which he became a fellow. In 1743, by the favour of Sir Robert Walpole, with whom his father lived on terms of friendship, he was elected to one of the travelling fellowships founded by Dr. Radcliffe, and soon after went abroad. He studied physic first at Edinburgh, and afterwards at Leyden, under the celebrated Boerhaave; after which he visited various parts of Europe. He resided some time at Paris in the year 1745, whence he returned to Holland; and, after a short stay in that country, he passed through part of Germany into England, carefully observing whatever merited the notice of a man of learning and taste. After quitting Italy he paid a second visit to France, and, after continuing some time in that country, returned to England in the year 1751.

'During his absence on the continent, the university of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of doctor of physic, by diploma; and his father's health beginning to decline soon after his arrival in England, he was, in July 1751, elected joint physician with him to Bridewell and Bethlem [*Bethlehem*] hospitals, and on his death, which happened in the latter end of 1752, he became sole physician thereof.

'From this time he confined his practice entirely to cases of insanity, in which branch of the medical art he attained to a higher degree of eminence than was possessed by any of his predecessors or cotemporaries. In the year 1758, Dr. Battie having published "A Treatise on Madness," wherein he spoke, as Dr. Monro conceived, disrespectfully of the former physicians of Bethlem hospital, he thought it incumbent upon him to take some notice of the publication; and, in the same year, published a small pamphlet, intituled, "Remarks on Dr. Battie's Treatise on Madness." His ideas of this dreadful malady, as well as the motives which induced him to compose these remarks, are very concisely and elegantly expressed in the advertisement which is prefixed to the work. "Madness is a distemper of such a nature, that very little of real use can be said concerning it; the immediate causes will for ever disappoint our search, and the cure of that disorder depends on management as much as medicine. My own inclination would never have led me to appear in print; but it was thought necessary for me, in my situation, to say something in answer to the undeserved censures which Dr. Battie has thrown upon my predecessors."

'Dr. Monro defines madness to be a "vitiated judgement;" though he declares, at the same time, he "cannot take upon him to say, that even this definition is absolute and perfect." His little work contains the most judicious and accurate remarks on this unhappy disorder; and the character which, in the course of it, he draws of his father, is so spirited, and so full of the warmth of filial

affection, as to merit being selected. " To say he understood this distemper beyond any of his cotemporaries is very little praise; the person who is most conversant in such cases, provided he has but common sense enough to avoid metaphysical subtilties, will be enabled, by his extensive knowledge and experience, to excel all those who have not the same opportunities of receiving information. He was a man of admirable discernment, and treated this disease with an address that will not soon be equalled; he knew very well, that the management requisite for it was never to be learned but from observation; he was honest and sincere; and though no man was more communicative upon points of real use, he never thought of reading lectures on a subject that can be understood no otherwise than by personal observation: physick he honoured as a profession, but he despised it as a trade; however partial I may be to his memory, his friends acknowledge this to be true, and his enemies will not venture to deny it."

'In 1753, Dr. Monro married Miss Elizabeth Smith, second daughter of Mr. Thomas Smith, merchant of London, by whom he had six children. The eldest of these, John, was designed for the profession of physick, and had made a considerable progress in his studies, but died, after a short illness, at St. John's college, Oxford, in the year 1779, in the 25th year of his age. The loss of his eldest son was severely felt by Dr. Monro, to whom he was endeared by his many amiable qualities and promising abilities; and this loss was aggravated by that of his only daughter, Charlotte, who was carried off in the 22d year of her age, by a rapid consumption, within four years afterwards. She was a young lady, who, to a native elegance of manners, added excellent sense, and an uncommon sweetness of disposition. It is not wonderful, therefore, that her loss should prove a severe blow to a father who loved her with the most lively affection. He was now in his 68th year, and had hitherto enjoyed an uncommon share of good health, but the constant anxiety he was under, during his daughter's illness, preyed upon his mind, and brought on a paralytic stroke in January 1783. The strength of his constitution, however, enabled him to overcome the first effects of this disorder, and to resume the exercise of his profession; but his vigour, both of mind and body, began from this time to decline. In 1787, his youngest son, Dr. Thomas Monro, (who, on the death of his eldest brother, had applied himself to the study of physic), was appointed his assistant at Bethlem hospital, and he thenceforward gradually withdrew himself from business, till the beginning of 1791, when he retired altogether to the village of Hadley, near Barnet; and, in this retirement, he continued till his death, which happened, after a few days illness, on the 27th of December, in the same year, and in the 77th year of his age.

'Dr. Monro was tall and handsome in his person, and of a robust constitution of body. Though naturally of a grave cast of mind,

no man enjoyed the pleaſures of ſociety with a greater reliſh. To great warmth of temper he added a nice ſenſe of honour; and, though avowedly at the head of that branch of his profeſſion to which he confined his practice, yet his behaviour was gentle and modeſt, and his manners refined and elegant in an eminent degree. He poſſeſſed an excellent underſtanding, and great humanity of diſpoſition; but the leading features of his character were diſintereſtedneſs and generoſity; as he has ſaid of his father, ſo may it with equal truth be ſaid of himſelf—" phyſic he honoured as a profeſſion, but he deſpiſed it as a trade." Never did he aggravate the miſery of thoſe who were in want, by accepting what could ill be ſpared; whilſt he frequently contributed as much by his bounty as his profeſſional ſkill to alleviate the diſtreſs he was forced to witneſs. It was the remark of a man of acute obſervation, who knew him intimately, " that he had met with many perſons who affected to hold money in contempt, but Dr. Monro was the only man he had found who really did deſpiſe it."

' He poſſeſſed a very elegant taſte for the fine arts in general; and his collection, both of books and prints, was very extenſive. He was uncommonly well verſed in the early hiſtory of engraving; and the ſpecimens he had collected of the works of the firſt engravers were very ſelect and curious. From theſe, as well as from the communications of Dr. Monro, the late ingenious Mr. Strutt derived great aſſiſtance in the compoſition of his hiſtory of engravers. Though he never appeared as an author, except in the ſingle inſtance mentioned above, he poſſeſſed a mind ſtored with the beauties of ancient as well as modern literature. Horace and Shakſpeare were his favourite authors; and his notes and remarks on the latter were conſiderable: theſe he communicated to Mr. Steevens, previous to his publication of the works of our immortal poet; anxious to contribute his mite to the elucidation of thoſe paſſages which time has rendered obſcure. His fondneſs for reading was great, and proved a conſiderable reſource to him in the evening of life; and fortunately he was able to enjoy his books till within a very few days of his death.' Vol. xi. p. 24.

The concluſion of the life of Sir Joſhua Reynolds deſerves particular commendation.

' Sir Joſhua Reynolds was fellow of the royal and antiquary ſocieties, and doctor of laws, of Oxford, and Dublin, and member of the company of painters-ſtainers, in London.

' The ſame love for, and unremitting attention to, his art, attended him through life; for it was his conſtant practice to enter his ſtudy at nine in the morning, never quitting it, except on particular occaſions, before five in the evening.

' He has been charged, perhaps with ſome truth, with a want of invention; but the ſlighteſt hint ſufficed to ſet his powers in motion, while the moſt unpromiſing materials, by the operation of his

mind, were converted to the nobleſt purpoſes. In the heads even of ballads may be found the rudiments of many of his moſt admired works; and there is not the ſmalleſt doubt, but the deſign for his majeſty's portrait, which now adorns the council chamber of the Royal Academy, was ſuggeſted by a two-penny print to be ſeen on every wall in London.

'Without, perhaps, taking the lead in any department of his art, he united more excellences than have been found in any ſingle work of his predeceſſors; leaving little for the moſt faſtidious critic to wiſh, added either to his colouring or his chiara obſcura; poſſeſſing alſo a fine ſenſe of form, though not a ſufficient power of execution. If, in following the allurements of fancy, he ſometimes ſtumbled on the very threſhold of affectation, yet has he, on the other hand, furniſhed us with many examples even of the ſublime; and the admirers of beauty and ſimplicity will be indebted for many a mental treat to the happy efforts of this accompliſhed maſter.

'Thoſe qualities, whether of form or colour, that are directed merely to the eye, were imitated by him with a vigour that did not always accompany his efforts in delineating the operations of the mind. Count Ugolino, and perhaps his cardinal Beaufort, may form exceptions to this obſervation. His character in this particular has indeed been rendered liable to ſome contempt, from an injudicious effort to raiſe it; and the catalogue of his hiſtorical works has been ſwelled with fancy-portraits, and other pictures, better deſcribed by the term *capricios* than the ſevere and unequivocal title of hiſtory.

'If his life was honourable to him, the reſpect paid to his memory was no leſs ſo. Many characters, diſtinguiſhed for rank and talents, attended to grace his obſequies, and pay the laſt tribute to departed excellence. The city gates were opened to receive the ſolemn train, where it was joined by the chief magiſtrate; the ſhops were all the way ſhut up; and, for the honour of the arts, be it remembered, that, when the remains of the late preſident of the Royal Academy were removed from Somerſet-houſe to the great national cathedral, the commerce of the firſt commercial city in the world was for ſome hours ſuſpended.' Vol. xiii. p. 59.

It muſt be allowed, that the lives are often written too conciſely, and with too little diſcrimination; but the limits to which the authors were confined muſt be their apology, and this abridged form, eſpecially in the lives of men of little importance, has enabled them to give a great number of new articles. Of ſuch men we might be willing to know ſomething; but curioſity will ſoon be ſatisfied. It is of more importance to obſerve that our biographers have been occaſionally too diffuſe, and in two articles, particularly, very near each other, have copied narratives of very doubtful credit. In one, they admit theſe doubts, but from the other they ſeem to

have copied with little diftruft; we mean the life of Bower, and that of the famous adventurer count Benyoufki. Some other blemifhes are obfervable: but while, on the whole, we can cheerfully praife, thefe errors will not greatly detract from the merit of the work.

The Hop-Garden, a Didactic Poem. By Luke Booker, LL. D. *8vo.* 3s. *fewed.* Rivingtons.

ANCIENT and modern fpecimens of the poetry of barbarous nations fufficiently inform us, that the firft effay was made in the war-fong; and that, as fecurity of rural property refulted from the progrefs of civilifation, paftorals and georgics became interefting topics of the Mufe. The attention and knowledge of primitive times being chiefly confined to thefe fubjects, the fancy was not permitted to rove far beyond them; and ftill the images of country fcenes and rural occupations form the moft delicious ornaments of poefy.

The hop-garden is in various points of view an interefting object: the beauty of its fummer afpect, the high finifh of its cultivation, and its national importance, all confpire to warm the imagination, and conftitute a fit fubject for the georgic poet.

After fo good a choice of a topic, we were grieved to learn from the preface, that in this *didactic* poem, the detailed precepts of hop-planting were intentionally to be fuperfeded by an attempt to amufe, 'and to kindle in the breaft fentiments of piety, patriotifm, and benevolence.' Hence we were not furprifed to find much extraneous matter in the compofition; whence it is rather neceffary to confider it as a feries of epifodes, connected (not very artificially) by tranfient recurrence to the hop-garden, than as a whole, which may fill the mind with the unity and plenitude of pleafing information.

Some remarks on the introduction of hop-culture into England, and a comparifon of our northern vine with the lefs operofe cultivation and regularity of the real vineyard, might, we think, have found their way into this poem. The writer apparently was not aware that a poem on the hop-garden (by Smart) is already in exiftence. In point of verfification the comparifon is certainly favourable to Mr. B. as Smart's piece is the moft carelefs of all his productions. But a much greater portion of practical knowledge is to be found in Smart, whofe youth was converfant in his father's hop-gardens. The defcription of the hop-picking may furnifh no unfair comparifon of the powers of the rival poets.

'See! from the great metropolis they rufh,
The induftrious vulgar. They, like prudent bees,

In Kent's wide garden roam, expert to crop
The flowery hop, and provident to work,
Ere winter numb their sun-burnt hands, and winds
Ingoal them, murmuring in their gloomy cells.
From these, such as appear the rest to excel
In strength and young agility, select.
These shall support with vigour and address
The bin-man's weighty office; now extract
From the sequacious earth the pole, and now
Unmarry from the closely clinging vine.
O'er twice three pickers, and no more, extend
The bin-man's way; unless thy ears can bear
The crack of poles continual, and thine eyes
Behold unmov'd the hurrying peasant tear
Thy wealth, and throw it on the thankless ground.'
Smart's Hop-Garden, book ii. l. 56.

'Hail, joyous season! with auspicious smile
Approaching, lovely. 'Mid the flutt'ring vines
Morn's light-wing'd breezes, whisp'ring softly, play,
And shake the dew-drops from the pendent flow'rs.
—See, see, unsummon'd, blithesome now advance
The willing pickers to the garden's bound;
Where, plac'd to meet the moisture-drinking ray,
They plant the crib capacious. Soon commence
Their various tasks. All emulous to please,—
Some, loos'ning to and fro the wreathed poles,
Extract them from earth's bosom, and them bear
To *others*, station'd at the ready crib;
Who soon with nimble fingers them divest
Of all their blossom'd pride.' P. 64.

Besides the precepts of hop culture, we learn from the author, in divers apostrophes, that French assignats are not so good as English bank-notes; that Worcester and Dudley banks are houses of good credit; and that Mr. Pitt,

'Exalted high by intellectual wealth,
He, in the first of nations first of men,
Stands firm: while thro' the wond'ring senate rolls
His oral thunder,—thro' the world his fame.' P. 38.

This writer, and others who read standard poetry, ought to recollect how dull and vapid such temporary and personal allusions have appeared to themselves in reading poems which have been written for eternity.

The description of morning is happy, and the concluding image of the woodpecker striking and novel.

'Hills, woods, and forests, shadowy vales, and plains,
Capacious bays, and promontories huge

Fring'd with soft-tufted foliage, Fancy sees
In those aërial forms which richly veil
The blue expanse of heav'n. By slow degrees
These vanish; and, augustly from his couch,
Rises the king of day. Lo! with him rise
Creation's tenants—man, and bird, and beast,
And earth rejoicing smiles. The village smokes;
The woods are vocal; and the teeming kine
Unite their lowings with the bleating flocks:
These for the ruddy milk-maid,—*those* from fold
To be restor'd to pasture.—O'er yon field,
Yok'd recent, lo! athletic oxen drag
The glebe-inverting plough:—the woodman's axe
Sounds thro' the echoing glade, and sudden 'frights
The whirring covey from their first repast.
The stock-dove cooes: and, dipping in its flight,
The long-bill'd woodpecker on glossy wing
Flits, laughing mockingly, from tree to tree.' P. 61.

The species of woodpecker here intended would better have been particularised. It is evidently the yaffel; whose note, as she 'flits, laughing mockingly, from tree to tree,' repeats her own name.

In book i. l. 32, the author has inadvertently used the word *genus*, where he intended a discrimination more minute than that of *species*. But we pass over little errors to observe in general, that it is impossible not to feel (from internal evidence) that the poem is a collection of many detached fragments, whose connecting tyes are painfully apparent.

In the sequel-poem this infelicity is not so perceptible, and the images of good old Christmas-revelry always lead to pleasing recollections. Perhaps the quantity of our national happiness has been not a little diminished by the gradual and increasing neglect of stated times of general festivity. The recollection and the prospect must have extended their comfortable influence through a great part of the year.

A clerical meeting at a visitation, and a quaker's dinner, are oddly chosen as specimens of social enjoyment.

'The social board has charms. And with its guests,
Devoid of crime, may sit the bearded sage,—
Religion's holiest priest: as He once deign'd,
(God's gracious Son) who consecrated mirth,
At Friendship's bidding, with his presence bland;
Supplying gen'rous want's unutter'd wish
By marv'lous act, to heighten nuptial joy.
—So, cheer'd with temp'rate cups, his servants liege,
Invited guests contemplate wedded love,
In sacred bonds at th' altar newly join'd:

Or when, by rite baptiſmal, to Chriſt's fold
They add the tender pledges of that love—
A cauſe for holy joy. Devoid of guile,
At ſynod-viſitation too, they meet,
And th' amply-furniſh'd board, convivial, grace;
Ended the paſtoral charge, with learning fraught,
From pious biſhop or archdeacon grave,
Addreſs'd and fitted to the rev'rent ear
Of auditors in holy things ordain'd
To miniſter; but, to th' exterior-croud
Of ſleek church-wardens and church-tending dames,
Incomprehenſibly refin'd and deep;
Expoſing ſchiſms and hereſies long time
Refuted—yet freſh broach'd,—unwary flocks
To ſever from their ſhepherd; flocks, too fond
Of novel food,—not heeding whence deriv'd;
Whether from Salem's Mount, with deathleſs flow'rs
And ever-ſpringing paſturage adorn'd;
Or whether from the rank and treach'rous fens
Whence many an *ignis fatuus* ſhoots up
To lead unſtable ſouls thro' bog and mire,
Where ſophiſts flounder and enthuſiaſts ſit
In moping madneſs. Of ſuch, led aſtray,—
Full many ſuch, lo! the lamented theme:
Till, gladly chang'd by the preſiding chief
(For piety diſtinguiſh'd and for lore
Various, yet valued moſt the Chriſtian code)
A gayer air the converſe takes, inſpir'd
By a libation to the ſacred cauſe
Of orthodoxy, freely pour'd around.
—No wine expenſive, erſt diſtain'd the board,
Foreign eclypt, but from Britannia's woods—
Elder and ſloe, ill-mix'd; corroſive pains
Producing, cholic dire and ſick'ning bile,—
Reluctant yielding e'en to medic pow'r:
Nauſeous the means, and ſlow, perhaps, the cure.
'With equal innocence each ſect, I ween,
That Chriſt reveres, and his all-perfect word
Believes, obedient, ſpends the ſocial hour,
And circulates the care-beguiling glaſs.
In patriarchal plainneſs, lo! around
The feſtive board, a friendly tribe convene;
Chaſte, ſimple, neat, and modeſt in attire,
And chaſtely-ſimple in their manners too.
To them her gay varieties, in vain,
Faſhion diſplays, inconſtant as the moon.
Them to allure, in vain does chymic art
For human veſtments multiply its dyes.

One mode of dress contents them; and but few
The colours of their choice,—the gaudy shunn'd,
E'en by the gentle sisterhood. In youth,
The roses vivid hue their cheeks, alone,
Wear, dimpling,—shaded by a bonnet plain,
White as the cygnet's bosom,—jetty black
As raven's wing,—or, if a tint it bear,
'Tis what the harmless dove herself assumes.
The hardier sex an unloop'd hat, broad-brimm'd,
Shelters from summer's heat and winter's cold;
That from its station high ne'er deigns to stoop,
Obsequious nor to custom nor to king.
Yet, tho' precise, and primitive in speech—
Restrain they not the smile,—the seemly jest,—
Nor e'en the cordial laugh, that cynics grave
Falsely assert "bespeaks a vacant mind."
Serenely-gay, with gen'rous ale they fill
The temp'rate cup: no want of new-coin'd toast
To give it zest—"Good-fellowship and peace"
Their sentiment,—their object,—and their theme.' P. 94.

Something of the ridiculous is perhaps unintentionally inserted in the visitation-scene. We presume that the tale of Edwin and Evander is fiction, as the notes give no information about it. A formal illustration is puerile, when it is not taken from a real fact.—On the whole, those who have read Malvern-Hill will find the author equal to himself in the present production, which, if it be not often highly poetic, is seldom very prosaic. Certainly the writer is in no danger of the execration merited by any offence against 'the rules of right and virtue.'

An impartial and succinct History of the Church of Christ. *(Continued from p. 27.)*

WE left the church externally triumphant at the close of the fourth century. Wealth, splendor, patronage, exalted it; but corruption was preying on its vitals: the name only prevailed; the real glory had departed. A new scene opens to our view. The historian is sensible of the change.

'I feel myself,' (he says) 'like the adventurous traveller, entering the burning soil of Afric, surrounded with desolation, whirlwinds, moving pillars of sand, and wide spreading barrenness; and stretching his eager eyes over the waste, to catch a rising tree, or a verdant spot, which may afford a resting place for his weary feet, and a welcome fountain to cool his parched tongue.' Vol. ii. P. 2.

Vain ceremonies increase; knowledge decreases; superstition and folly are preparing the two monsters which are soon to make their appearance; Mohammed in the east, and Boniface in the west, with the granted title of universal bishop, distinguish the commencement of the seventh century. The true believers retire to mountains and deserts; and it is probable that the church of the wilderness may date its origin from this period. On the one side, the Saracens are changing churches into mosques; on the other, popery is filling them with all the absurdities of idolatrous worship. 'That men could invent such fooleries, and popes confirm the sanctity and availableness of such offices, is among the most striking monuments of superstitious ignorance and sacerdotal imposition.' From the fourth to the sixteenth century all is darkness; iniquity and vice increase; and 'the fifteenth century closes with superstition triumphant.'

'Thus closed the fifteenth century, with superstition triumphant; power in the hands of oppressors; abuses grown inveterate by long ages of prescription; the clergy corrupt beyond conception; ignorance maintained with sacred jealousy among the people; and learning itself hardly daring to pry into the mysteries of iniquity established by law and custom. A feeble band, dispersed and distressed, yet struggled for life, and preserved only by a divine and gracious providence, still kept alive the vital spark. The fire long smothered, was now however ready to burst out into a flame, and, destined we trust to consume the wood and hay and stubble of superstition, will continue to shine brighter and stronger unto the perfect day.' Vol. ii. p. 340.

We make no extracts from the accounts of these dark ages, though the rise of the different orders of monks, the various services in honour of the virgin Mary and the saints, the origin of the crusades, and many other effects of superstition, well described by our author, might, if our limits had permitted, have engaged the attention of our readers. We hasten to a more important period, the time of the reformation. The prodigality of the court of Rome demanded new resources. The invention of indulgences rapidly poured the desired treasures into the bosom of the church, and at the same time raised an unexpected adversary, who began the glorious work of its reform. Indulgences were the celebrated panacea for every wounded conscience; no crime was so desperate, no sin so horrid, as not to give way to this universal medicine.

'An inconsiderable monk at Wittemberg heard with indignation these hyperbolical pretensions. He belonged to the Augustin order, and for his learning and talents had been raised to the professorship of divinity, in the academy of that city, by Frederic, elector of Saxony. Martin Luther, a name for ever to be revered by every

real Christian, resolved to check this impudent mountebank* in his career; and not to suffer him in the city, where he held the divinity chair, to propagate blasphemies, so opposite to all revealed truth, without rebuke. He therefore challenged him in ninety-five propositions, to defend himself and his pontifical employers, whom Luther dared to censure as accomplices, for suffering such impostures, and countenancing such abominable frauds and impositions on the people. AN. 1517.

'Thus was the gauntlet thrown down, and the first blow struck of that battle, which hath continued to rage ever since, and, after so many turns and changes, appears ready to be decided in the final subversion of papal tyranny, reduced now that I am writing to the dust of contempt, and approaching, I hope, its utter extinction.

'Never was a man more formed for the contest in which he was engaged with the see of Rome, than this brave Saxon. His faculties were singularly great; his memory prodigious; his mind fraught with the richest stores of ancient wisdom and literature, to which he had addicted himself; but above all he was deeply read in the oracles of God, and conversant with the best of the fathers and their writings, particularly St. Augustin, the patron of his order. His natural temper was strong and irascible; his courage invincible; his eloquence powerful as his voice; and darting the lightnings of his arguments on his confounded opponents. No dangers intimidated him; no difficulties, trials, or emergencies, deprived him of self-possession; in perseverance unshaken, in labours indefatigable. Rome knew not the Hercules in the cradle that was ready to strangle her snakes, and at first despised such impotent efforts. Nor did he himself know his own strength, or suspect or intend the consequences which would result from this small commencement. But if God will work, none can let it; and any instrument is sufficient, though it were but the jaw-bone of an ass, when the Spirit of the Lord comes upon the appointed Sampson. Yet, though God works according to the counsels of his own will, we see how wonderfully he provides and qualifies the proper subjects for their peculiar services; and, albeit the success is wholly from himself, we cannot but admire the instruments he employs.' Vol. ii. P. 354.

The effects of this well-known controversy are well described; the characters of the reformers are justly appreciated; and Erasmus, 'who shared none of the glory of reformation by meanly shrinking from the cross,' is still properly represented as 'a great man, a good man, an admired man; but not daring to take a decided part, he remained the victim of his own timidity.'

The labours of the reformers were viewed with a jealous eye by the sovereigns of Europe, who, instigated by the priests, attempted to confute their arguments by the sword, not by reason. Charles the Fifth was their greatest enemy; yet

* Iccelius, a Dominican friar.

'it is a singular event, and supported by strong authority, that this enemy of the protestants, who had repeatedly brought their cause to the very verge of ruin, is supposed to have died in the faith he so long persecuted. Wearied with royalty, and the toils which had worn him down, Charles V. wished to end his days in holy retirement. He resigned his hereditary dominions of Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip, and procured the empire for his brother Ferdinand. He had thoroughly been conversant with the subjects in dispute, and in the silence of solitude, the absence of tumultuous engagements, and the approach of death, the solemn reflections upon these important truths, which he had so often heard debated, led him to different apprehensions respecting them, from those he had before entertained. His dearest friends, and the companions of his retirement, were seized by the inquisitors the moment their royal master closed his eyes. His preacher, his confessor, his favoured bishop of Tortosa, with many others of inferior distinction or domestics, expired in flames or torture, the victims of that bloody tribunal, and of the cruel Philip, the unworthy son and successor of this mighty monarch. The vengeance they were prevented from inflicting on the master, fell on his peculiar favourites, and spoke the cause of offence. Vol. ii. P. 415.

The nature of the reformation, divided into three heads, the Lutheran, the Calvinistic, and the heterodox, is explained with great perspicuity; and the three parties which divide the protestant world may, if they cannot unite in one interpretation of scripture, learn to entertain charitable opinions of each other. The character of Calvin is drawn with such spirit, and the remark at the close is so appropriate and just, that we cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of laying it before our readers.

'Calvin was a native of Noyon, in Picardy: his mental powers were great; his diligence indefatigable; his erudition equal to the first of that age; his eloquence was manly; his style perspicuous, and admirably pure; as a minister of the sanctuary, as a professor of divinity, his labours were immense. Yet, in the zenith of his power, his income amounted only to twenty-five pounds a-year; and he refused the increase of stipend which was offered him by the magistracy, chusing rather to give an example of disinterestedness to his successors. His morals were strictly exemplary; his piety fervent; his zeal against offenders in doctrine or manners rigid. He had much opposition to encounter, but he subdued it, by persevering ardor and dignity of conduct. His influence at Geneva was vast, and he was looked up to by the reformed in general, as their oracle. Every where his name was mentioned with reverence. Tenacious in point of doctrine, he met an host of opponents, who rejected the system of unconditional decrees. Controversy sharpened his spirit, and he is accused of abusing his power and influence in acts of oppression towards his adversaries. The sufferings of Gruet, Bolsac, Castalio,

Ochinus, but particularly of the ever remembered Servetus, put to death by the Genevan magistrates, for his Socinian and infidel opinions, have brought an odium on Calvin's name, as having instigated them to such acts of violence; at least not having exerted the authority which he was known to possess, to prevent the shedding of blood: and if this were a just charge, let the reproach rest upon him.

'However dangerous such opinions may be supposed to the peace of society, or the souls of men, many now doubt the right of any penal inflictions for them; and much more the justice of putting any man to death on that account, however impious or atheistical he may be. But, in truth, the rights of conscience were as little understood in that day among the protestants as among the Papists; and obstinate heresy, or daring blasphemy, supposed to deserve the most condign punishment, and adjudged to prison and to death.

'Far from attempting to justify these severities, I esteem this as the foulest blot in Calvin's otherwise fair escutcheon; nor do I think the spirit of the times any exculpation for violating the plainest dictates of the word of God and common sense, that "liberty of conscience and private judgment are every man's birth-right:" and where nothing immoral, or tending by some overt act to disturb the peace of society appears, there all punishment for matters of opinion must be utterly unchristian, and unjustifiable.' Vol. ii. p. 493.

By the reformation a spirit of religion was revived in many of the kingdoms which had been under the dominion of the beast; and, even into such as still bowed to its yoke, the light penetrated, and a change was preparing which the present days have witnessed; for the reformed religion became established, and the ardor of its professors cooled. From various circumstances, the infidelity which overwhelmed the catholic church began its ravages in the protestant confession. This progress is well described in the third volume, in which the departure from the thirty-nine articles in the seventeenth century in England, the effects of the Arminianism of bishop Laud, and the latitudinarian notions of the generality of divines to the middle of the next century, particularly deserve the attention of every reader. The revival of true or evangelical religion is attributed by our author chiefly to the efforts of three persons, George Whitfield, Charles Wesley, and the countess of Huntingdon. The characters of these pious individuals are not ill drawn; and the peculiar tenets and system of the evangelical clergy, and the nature of its present state in this country, are delineated with accuracy and fidelity.

'Such has been the progress of what is called methodism in the greater bodies, that more immediately bear that name: but it hath spread in a prodigious manner, both among those of the church as well as the dissenters from it; and has been the means of rekindling

the zeal of very many, so as to produce a vast alteration for the better in the conduct of thousands and ten thousands. Predilection for the establishment, strongly attaches many to it, who have received their religious impressions from one or other of these methodist societies, or from some of their own clergy, who lye under the imputation of being methodistically inclined, that is, such as literally and with apparent zeal inculcate the doctrinal articles they have subscribed, and live in a state of greater piety and separation from the world, than the generality of their brethren. The number of these is of late amazingly increased. Where before scarcely a man of this stamp could be found, some hundreds, as rectors or curates in the established church, inculcate the doctrines which are branded with methodism; and every where, throughout the kingdom, one or more, and sometimes several, are to be found within the compass of a few miles, who approve themselves faithful labourers in the Lord's vineyard. They naturally associate among themselves, and separate from the corruption which is in the world. Every where they carry the stamp of peculiarity, and are marked by their brethren. Though carefully conforming to established rules, and strictly regular, they are every where objects of reproach, because their conduct cannot but reflect on those who choose not to follow such examples. They pay conscientious attention to the souls of their parishioners; converse with them on spiritual subjects, wherever they visit; encourage prayer and praise in the several families under their care; often meet them for these purposes; and engage them to meet and edify one another. Their exemplary conversation procures them reverence from the poor of the flock, as their faithful rebukes often bring upon them the displeasure of the worldling, the dissipated, and the careless. They join in none of the fashionable amusements of the age, frequent not the theatres, or scenes of dissipation, court no favour of the great, or human respects; their time and services are better employed in the more important labours of the ministry, preaching the word in season, out of season, and counting their work their best wages. They labour, indeed, under many discouragements. All the superior orders of the clergy shun their society. They have been often treated by their diocesans with much insolence and oppression. They can number no bishop, nor scarcely a dignitary among them. Yet their number, strength, and respectability, continue increasing. May they grow into an host, like the host of God!

'By the labours of these most excellent men the congregations of methodists and dissenters are greatly enlarged; and though during their lives and incumbency they fill their churches, and diminish the number of separatists; yet on their death or removal, they unintentionally add all the most serious part of their flocks to their brethren who are of a like spirit. For when the people have lost their good clergyman, and having no choice of a successor, find a man placed over them of an utterly different temper and conduct;

in doctrine erroneous, as in his life unexemplary; they are naturally driven to seek the same means of edification to which they have been accustomed, and which God hath given them the grace to know how truly to appreciate: as they have no such attachment to church walls, as to be confined to them, where Ichabod is written thereon. When therefore they can hear nothing truly edifying from their parish minister, they search out some methodist chapel, or dissenting meeting, where the evangelical and reformed doctrines are taught, and where a people like themselves, worshipping God in spirit, assemble for mutual edification; and if they can find no such, they raise one; associating among themselves, and appointing the most zealous and best informed to edify them; or making application for such to some one of the bodies of methodists or dissenters.

'It is a pleasing feature of the present day, that the spirit of toleration and candor appears of late more diffused, and persecution discountenanced, though not utterly discontinued. During the first struggles of methodism, many harsh and severe measures were taken, and wicked or prejudiced magistrates pushed the penal laws against sectaries to the extreme. Of late they have almost wholly slept, and those who were formerly despised and hated, at present are under a less odium from their profession, and more respected by their brethren. Their numbers have given them consequence in the national scale. The perilous times have engaged the chief attention of their countrymen. It is not a day to discourage religion, when impiety and infidelity are come in like a flood. Every government must perceive, that those citizens are most valuable whose obedience and peaceableness are strengthened by religious principles.

'The state of real godliness among us in general has for some time past certainly been on the increase. The clergy in the church, many of them at least, have been engaged to change the strain of moral preaching for more frequent notice of the orthodox principles of Christ's divinity and atonement, and the necessity of true holiness. But it must be confessed that even truth itself freezes upon the lips of those whose heart is not inflamed with the love of it; and who do not feel for others' souls by having felt the importance of seeking the salvation of their own.' Vol. iii. p. 264.

Thus has our writer brought down the history of the church, from that embodied on the day of Pentecost to the evangelical church, which is now sending missionaries into all lands. If in the latter church 'no bishop, *nor* [*and*] scarcely a dignitary is to be numbered,' it is of serious concern to the church of England to inquire into its own tenets and those adopted by so many of its members, to ascertain what new body has thus arisen within its pale, which is the cause of secession in many instances to 'methodist chapels and dissenting meetings.' The necessity of this inquiry is the more urgent, since 'probably not less than

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five hundred places for divine worſhip (as we are informed by this writer) have been opened within the laſt three years.' This effect of evangelical preaching may aſtoniſh thoſe who are inattentive to the real ſtate of their country; but, though it exceeded our calculations, we have no reaſon to doubt the truth of the ſtatement. The only circumſtance which ſtrikes us in this reſpect is the apparent triumph with which this ſchiſm is mentioned. We are curious to learn on what grounds it can be juſtified by a preſbyter of the church of England; and this is done in his diſſertation upon ſchiſm.

Schiſm is juſtly defined by him to be 'the ſeparation of one body of profeſſing Chriſtians from another, on whatever cauſe it may have ariſen;' and the definition given by the church of England is acknowledged to be juſt. The church is 'a ſociety of faithful people, where the word of God is truly preached, and the ſacraments duly adminiſtered.' The crime of ſeparation is imputable either to the preacher or the people; to the preacher, if he ceaſes to preach faithful doctrine; and then the people are juſtified in quitting him, in appointing a more faithful miniſter of the ſacraments, and adhering to the true word of God. This doctrine is plauſible; but it opens the door to many abuſes. A church, particularly the church of England, is not confined to a particular ſpot within four walls: it embraces a body of men, in religious communion with each other, in various parts of the earth. Let it be allowed that the miniſter in one ſpot ceaſes to be animated with that ſpirit which he received at his ordination, that he no longer preaches the true and faithful word, and that he is reprobate both in principle and practice: we put the ſtrongeſt caſe, that its effects may be more clearly ſeen. Is the congregation not only to leave this miniſter, but to erect for itſelf a new place of worſhip, not acknowledging the authority of the biſhop, unordained and unconſecrated by him? We may juſtly doubt the propriety of the firſt ſtep; and the ſecond is clearly ſchiſmatical: here our author loſes ſight of the obvious diſtinction in theſe caſes. We may allow, that, from very extraordinary circumſtances, redreſs is not given to the afflicted congregation; but its duty is evidently to apply to the biſhop, to ſubſtantiate its charges according to the canons of the church, and to require the diſmiſſion of the offending miniſter from his poſt. Such complaints, we believe, have been rarely made; for, on the firſt appearance of the new rector, who is deemed not ſo evangelical as the laſt, a ferment is excited amidſt the congregation, and a meeting-houſe is erected. Such conduct deſerves to be reprobated. We will proceed farther to the caſe of a biſhop's refuſal of relief, and his encouragement of the offending miniſter. Is the congregation then juſtifiable in quitting the communion of the

church? By no means. The liturgy of the church of England still remains. It would be very extraordinary if all the neighbouring churches should be equally on the decline; and, if they should be, it is to be remembered that the sermon is an inferior part of the church service, and a bad delivery or a bad discourse will not justify schism. On this point then the evangelical clergy in general, and the author of this work in particular, seem to be running into a gross error. They not only neglect the proper pains to enforce the appeal to episcopal authority, when a congregation is injured by its minister, but they give their countenance to such ministers and congregations as have withdrawn from the pale of the established church. It is in vain to urge that vital Christianity is to be found in the one, and not in the other: the members of the church of England, and particularly its ministers, are under an obligation to be anxious for the due performance of Christian duties in their own communion; and, if any secede from it, the secession should be matter of grief, not of triumph, to those who remain within its pale and are maintained by its benefices.

From the notice that we have taken of this work, and the copious extracts which have accompanied our remarks, the nature of its contents must be clearly discerned. If we blame the egotism which prevails in many parts, we cannot but applaud the spirit of the remarks which it occasions. If we would expunge a variety of expressions, such as *conventicle*, *itinerancy*, &c. we must admit that they are adapted to the writer's tenets. If we think the schismatical tendency of the work a very blameable trait in a writer under the church establishment, we are pleased with this opportunity of learning the whole system of the evangelical clergy, and that probably by which the greatest number of Christians in a single communion in this island may be said to be governed. It is evident that a change is taking place in religious opinions. If the system recommended in this work should prevail, more will apparently be thrown into the popular scale than has hitherto been thought advisable; but it is certain, that the diversity of opinions between the latitudinarian and evangelical clergy must lead to some very important revolution in the church. On this account, the present history deserves peculiar notice; and to the politician, as well as the divine, it holds out some important facts, to which, with or without their consent, their attention must in the course of few years be drawn.

The History of America. Books IX. and X. Containing the History of Virginia, to the Year 1688; *and the History of New England, to the Year* 1652. *By William Robertson, D. D. &c.* 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies.

'THE original plan of the late Dr. Robertson,' says the editor of these remains, 'with respect to the history of America, comprehended not only an account of the discovery of that country, and of the conquests and colonies of the Spaniards, but embraced also the history of the British and Portuguese settlements in the New World, and of the settlements made by the several nations of Europe in the West-Indian islands; and it was his intention not to have published any part of the work until the whole was completed.' He deviated from this intention, however, by publishing the two volumes in quarto which contain the early history of the New World. It appears that he had made no inconsiderable progress in the history of the British settlements; but to what extent cannot be determined, as he committed many of his manuscripts to the flames, and left only the two books now published, which, though short, appear to have received his last finish, and will not detract from his acknowledged merit as an historian. It must be confessed, at the same time, that, although few works raised the expectation of the public higher than the History of America (published in 1776), it did not acquire the approbation or popularity of his former works. This was partly occasioned by its being confined to the discovery of the New World, and the progress of the Spanish arms and colonies, and partly, perhaps, by the adoption of certain theories about which speculative men debate with a pertinacity not to be justified by the object. Upon the whole, however, the work was deservedly admired by men of taste for the elegance of its style, and the copious as well as curious research which distinguished it from preceding attempts of the kind.

The two books now communicated to the public may be considered as a fair specimen of what might have been expected from the doctor's pen, if old age had not diminished his vigour, and dulled the keenness of his observation. We still perceive in the following extract, respecting the origin of puritanism in England, much of the style and manner of the historian of Charles V.

'When the superstitions and corruptions of the Romish church prompted different nations of Europe to throw off its yoke, and to withdraw from its communion, the mode as well as degree of their separation was various. Wherever reformation was sudden, and carried on by the people without authority from their rulers, or in opposition to it, the rupture was violent and total. Every part of

the ancient fabric was overturned, and a different system, not only with respect to doctrine, but to church government, and the external rites of worship, was established. Calvin, who, by his abilities, learning, and austerity of manners, had acquired high reputation and authority in the protestant churches, was a zealous advocate for this plan of thorough reformation. He exhibited a model of that pure form of ecclesiastical policy, which he approved in the constitution of the church of Geneva. The simplicity of its institutions, and still more their repugnancy to those of the popish church, were so much admired by all the stricter reformers, that it was copied, with some small variations, in Scotland, in the republic of the United Provinces, in the dominions of the house of Brandenburgh, in those of the elector Palatine, and in the churches of the Hugonots in France.

'But in those countries where the steps of departure from the church of Rome were taken with greater deliberation, and regulated by the wisdom or policy of the supreme magistrate, the separation was not so wide. Of all the reformed churches, that of England has deviated least from the ancient institutions. The violent but capricious spirit of Henry VIII. who, though he disclaimed the supremacy, revered the tenets of the papal see, checked innovations in doctrine or worship during his reign. When his son ascended the throne, and the protestant religion was established by law, the cautious prudence of archbishop Cranmer moderated the zeal of those who had espoused the new opinions. Though the articles to be recognized as the system of national faith were framed conformably to the doctrines of Calvin, his notions with respect to church government and the mode of worship were not adopted. As the hierarchy in England was incorporated with the civil policy of the kingdom, and constituted a member of the legislature, archbishops and bishops, with all the subordinate ranks of ecclesiastics subject to them, were continued according to ancient form, and with the same dignity and jurisdiction. The peculiar vestments in which the clergy performed their sacred functions, bowing at the name of Jesus, kneeling at receiving the sacrament of the Lord's supper, the sign of the cross in baptism, the use of the ring in marriage, with several other rites to which long usage had accustomed the people, and which time had rendered venerable, were still retained. But though parliament enjoined the observance of these ceremonies under very severe penalties, several of the more zealous clergy entertained scruples with respect to the lawfulness of complying with this injunction; and the vigilance and authority of Cranmer and Ridley with difficulty saved their infant church from the disgrace of a schism on this account.

'On the accession of Mary, the furious zeal with which she persecuted all who had adopted the tenets of the reformers forced many eminent protestants, laymen as well as ecclesiastics, to seek an asylum on the continent. Francfort, Geneva, Basil, and Strasburgh,

received them with affectionate hospitality as sufferers in the cause of truth, and the magistrates permitted them to assemble by themselves for religious worship. The exiles who took up their residence in the two former cities modelled their little congregations according to the ideas of Calvin, and, with a spirit natural to men in their situation, eagerly adopted institutions which appeared to be farther removed from the superstitions of popery than those of their own church. They returned to England as soon as Elizabeth re-established the protestant religion, not only with more violent antipathy to the opinions and practices of that church by which they had been oppressed, but with a strong attachment to that mode of worship to which they had been for some years accustomed. As they were received by their countrymen with the veneration due to confessors, they exerted all the influence derived from that opinion, in order to obtain such a reformation in the English ritual as might bring it nearer to the standard of purity in foreign churches. Some of the queen's most confidential ministers were warmly disposed to co-operate with them in this measure. But Elizabeth paid little regard to the inclinations of the one, or the sentiments of the other. Fond of pomp and ceremony, accustomed, according to the mode of that age, to study religious controversy, and possessing, like her father, such confidence in her own understanding that she never doubted her capacity to judge and decide with respect to every point in dispute between contending sects, she chose to act according to her own ideas, which led her rather to approach nearer to the church of Rome, in the parade of external worship, than to widen the breach by abolishing any rite already established. An act of parliament, in the first year of her reign, not only required an exact conformity to the mode of worship prescribed in the service book, under most rigorous penalties, but empowered the queen to enjoin the observance of such additional ceremonies as might tend, in her opinion, to render the public exercises of devotion more decent and edifying.

The advocates for a farther reformation, notwithstanding this cruel disappointment of the sanguine hopes with which they returned to their native country, did not relinquish their design. They disseminated their opinions with great industry among the people. They extolled the purity of foreign churches, and inveighed against the superstitious practices with which religion was defiled in their own church. In vain did the defenders of the established system represent that these forms and ceremonies were, in themselves, things perfectly indifferent, which, from long usage, were viewed with reverence; and, by their impression upon the senses and imagination, tended not only to fix the attention, but to affect the heart, and to warm it with devout and worthy sentiments. The puritans (for by that name such as scrupled to comply with what was enjoined by the act of uniformity were distinguished) maintained, that the rites in question were inventions of men, su-

peradded to the simple and reasonable service required in the word of God; that from the excessive solicitude with which conformity to them was exacted, the multitude must conceive such an high opinion of their value and importance, as might induce them to rest satisfied with the mere form and shadow of religion, and to imagine that external observances may compensate for the want of inward sanctity; that ceremonies which had been long employed by a society manifestly corrupt, to veil its own defects, and to seduce and fascinate mankind, ought now to be rejected as relics of superstition unworthy of a place in a church which gloried in the name of *reformed*.

'The people, to whom in every religious controversy the final appeal is made, listened to the arguments of the contending parties; and it is obvious to which of them, men who had lately beheld the superstitious spirit of popery, and felt its persecuting rage, would lend the most favourable ear. The desire of a farther separation from the church of Rome spread wide through the nation. The preachers who contended for this, and who refused to wear the surplice, and other vestments peculiar to their order, or to observe the ceremonies enjoined by law, were followed and admired, while the ministry of the zealous advocates for conformity was deserted, and their persons often exposed to insult. For some time the non-conformists were connived at; but as their number and boldness increased, the interposition both of spiritual and civil authority was deemed necessary in order to check their progress. To the disgrace of Christians, the sacred rights of conscience and private judgment, as well as the charity and mutual forbearance suitable to the mild spirit of the religion which they professed, were in that age little understood. Not only the idea of toleration, but even the word itself in the sense now affixed to it, was then unknown. Every church claimed a right to employ the hand of power for the protection of truth and the extirpation of error. The laws of her kingdom armed Elizabeth with ample authority for this purpose, and she was abundantly disposed to exercise it with full vigour. Many of the most eminent among the puritan clergy were deprived of their benefices, others were imprisoned, several were fined, and some put to death. But persecution, as usually happens, instead of extinguishing, inflamed their zeal to such a height, that the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts of law was deemed insufficient to suppress it, and a new tribunal was established under the title of the high commission for ecclesiastical affairs, whose powers and mode of procedure were hardly less odious or less hostile to the principles of justice than those of the Spanish inquisition. Several attempts were made in the house of commons to check these arbitrary proceedings, and to moderate the rage of persecution; but the queen always imposed silence upon those who presumed to deliver any opinion with respect to a matter appertaining solely to her prerogative, in a tone as

imperious and arrogant as was ever used by Henry VIII. in addressing his parliaments; and so tamely obsequious were the guardians of the people's rights, that they not only obeyed those unconstitutional commands, but consented to an act, by which every person who should absent himself from church during a month was subjected to punishment by fine and imprisonment; and if after conviction he did not, within three months, renounce his erroneous opinions and conform to the laws, he was then obliged to abjure the realm; but if he either refused to comply with this condition, or returned from banishment, he should be put to death as a felon without benefit of clergy.

'By this iniquitous statute, equally repugnant to ideas of civil and of religious liberty, the puritans were cut off from any hope of obtaining either reformation in the church or indulgence to themselves. Exasperated by this rigorous treatment, their antipathy to the established religion increased, and, with the progress natural to violent passions, carried them far beyond what was their original aim. The first puritans did not entertain any scruples with respect to the lawfulness of episcopal government, and seem to have been very unwilling to withdraw from communion with the church of which they were members. But when they were thrown out of her bosom, and constrained to hold separate assemblies for the worship of God, their followers no longer viewed a society by which they were oppressed with reverence or affection. Her government, her discipline, her ritual, were examined with minute attention. Every error was pointed out, and every defect magnified. The more boldly any teacher inveighed against the corruptions of the church, he was listened to with greater approbation; and the farther he urged his disciples to depart from such an impure community, the more eagerly did they follow him. By degrees, ideas of ecclesiastical policy, altogether repugnant to those of the established church, gained footing in the nation. The more sober and learned puritans inclined to that form which is known by the name of presbyterian. Such as were more thoroughly possessed with the spirit of innovation, however much they might approve the equality of pastors which that system establishes, reprobated the authority which it vests in various judicatories, descending from one to another in regular subordination, as inconsistent with Christian liberty.' P. 166.

This appears to be a fair account of that unhappy schism which occasioned much of the calamitous anarchy of the time of Charles I. and which still in some degree continues to operate.

Asiatic Researches, Vol. V. (Continued from Vol. XXVIII. p. 385.)

IN the remaining part of this volume we find some important articles. The two first that call for our notice will interest those readers who are pleased with the application of plants and other natural productions to the purposes of general utility.

'XIII. Some Account of the Elastic Gum Vine of Prince of Wales's Island, and of Experiments made on the milky Juice which it produces: with Hints respecting the useful Purposes to which it may be applied. By James Howison, Esq.'

'XIV. A Botanical Description of Urceola Elastica, or Caout-chouc Vine of Sumatra and Pullo-pinang; with an Account of the Properties of its inspissated Juice, compared with those of the American Caout-chouc. By William Roxburgh, M. D.'

The discovery of this plant in Pullo-pinang and Sumatra is of great importance, when the various uses to which its milky juice may be applied are considered; not the least of these is the manufacture of boots and shoes, impenetrable to water. It forms a new genus of the class pentandria and the order monogynia.

'The vine which produces this milk is generally about the thickness of the arm, and almost round, with a strong ash-coloured bark, much cracked, and divided longitudinally; has joints at a small distance from each other, which often send out roots, but seldom branches; runs upon the ground to a great length; at last rises upon the highest trees into the open air. It is found in the greatest plenty at the foot of the mountains, upon a red clay mixed with sand, in situations completely shaded, and where the mercury in the thermometer will seldom exceed summer heat.

'In my numerous attempts to trace this vine to its top, I never succeeded; for, after following it in its different windings, sometimes to a distance of two hundred paces, I lost it, from its ascending among the branches of trees that were inaccessible either from their size or height. On the west coast of Sumatra I understand they have been more successful; doctor Roxburgh having procured from thence a specimen of the vine in flowers, from which he has classed it; but whose description I have not yet seen.' P. 157.

The chemical properties of this vegetable milk resemble those of animal milk. By spontaneous fermentation, or by acids, the caseous is separated from the serous part; and the butter is expressed by the contraction, when it assumes a solid form. The fermentation, when the milk is kept in a bottle, is only partial, and the decomposition is of course the same: the

remainder retains its original properties, though considerably diminished. Various kinds of clothing covered with this gum are capable of resisting moisture, as well as mineral acids; and manufactures of this kind promise to be highly valuable. This fluid, when dried, is very elastic. A ball of it, nine inches and a half in circumference, weighing seven ounces and a quarter, rebounds on falling from a height of twelve feet, ten or twelve times. The first rebound is about 6 feet; and when the elasticity is compared with that of the Brasilian caout-chouc, the advantage seems to be on the side of the Indian.

'Like American caout-chouc, it is soluble in the essential oil of turpentine, and I find it equally so in Cajeput oil, said to be obtained from the leaves of melaleuca leucadendron. Both solutions appear perfect, thick, and very glutinous. Spirits of wine, added to the solution in Cajeput oil, soon united with the oil, and left the caout-chouc floating on the mixture in a soft semi-fluid state, which, on being washed in the same liquor, and exposed to the air, became as firm as before it was dissolved, and retained its elastic powers perfectly; while in the intermediate states between semi-fluid and firm, it could be drawn out into long, transparent threads, resembling, in the polish of their surface, the fibres of the tendons of animals; when they broke, the elasticity was so great, that each end instantaneously returned to its respective mass. Through all these stages the least pressure with the finger and thumb united different portions, as perfectly as if they never had been separated, and without any clamminess or sticking to the fingers, which renders most of the solutions of caout-chouc so very unfit for the purposes for which they are required. A piece of catgut covered with the half inspissated solution, and rolled between two smooth surfaces, soon acquired a polish, and consistence very proper for bougies. Cajeput oil I also found a good menstruum for American caout-chouc, and was as readily separated by the addition of a little spirit of wine, or rum, as the other, and appears equally fit for use, as I covered a piece of catgut with the washed solution, as perfectly as with that of urceola. The only difference I could observe, was a little more adhesiveness from its not drying so quickly; the oil of turpentine had greater attraction for the caout-chouc than for the spirits of wine, consequently remained obstinately united to the former, which prevented its being brought into that state of firmness fit for handling, which it acquired when Cajeput oil was the menstruum.

'The Cajeput solution employed as a varnish did not dry, but remained moist and clammy, whereas the turpentine solution dried pretty fast.

'Expressed oil of olives and linseed proved imperfect menstruums while cold, as the caout-chouc, in several days, was only rendered soft, and the oils viscid, but with a degree of heat equal to that which melts tin, continued for about twenty-five minutes, it was perfectly

dissolved, but the solution remained thin and void of elasticity. I also found it soluble in wax, and in butter in the same degree of heat, but still these solutions were without elasticity, or any appearance of being useful.' P. 173.

Various plants of the torrid zone produce a similar juice of inferior qualities. Among these are two not generally known, viz. the artocarpus integrifolia, and hippomane biglandulosa.

'XV. Some Account of the Astronomical Labours of Jayasinha, Rajah of Ambhere, or Jayanagar. By William Hunter, Esq.'

Jey-sing was a rajah of the last century, having attained his rank in 1693; and he was an astronomer of no mean fame. He was employed by the emperor Mohammed Shah to reform the calendar, which, from the inaccuracy of the existing tables, had ceased to correspond with the appearances; and this task he well executed. He was not unacquainted with the mathematicians and astronomers of Greece and modern Europe. The tables of M. de la Hire, whom he calls Leyyer, were not unknown to this author; and he accuses him of being inaccurate. Our Indian astronomer constructed five observatories, which are here described; and the tables, entitled Zeei Mohammedshahy, are particularly noticed. Our author leaves it to professor Playfair to decide, whether they are taken from de la Hire and adapted to the Arabian lunar year, or are corrected from his own observations. The instructors of the Hindoos, in European astronomy, were evidently the Portuguese, and they have translations of Euclid's Elements, Newton's Principia, and other works of European mathematicians.

'XVI. Description of a Species of Meloë, an Insect of the First or Coleopterous Order in the Linnean System: found in all Parts of Bengal, Behar, and Oude; and possessing all the Properties of the Spanish blistering Fly, or Meloë Vesicatorius. By Captain Hardwicke.'

This insect, belonging to the same genus with the cantharis, possesses similar stimulating properties, though it will probably be found less useful, for the discharge is less serous than that from the Spanish insect, and more gelatinous. It may however be more convenient, if it is found not to affect the urinary organs.

'XVII. A Comparative Vocabulary of some of the Languages spoken in the Burma Empire. By Francis Buchanan, M. D.'

The empire on the east of Hindostan, interposed between it and the vast empire of China, has of late attracted our attention, and we shall notice it more particularly when we examine

major Symes' account of his embassy, to which Dr. Buchanan was, we apprehend, attached. This race, extended through a vast space on the east and south of India, has been chiefly known to us under the name of the Malays, a people common through that part of the continent, and of a similar form. We extract Dr. Buchanan's description.

'To judge from external appearance, that is to say, from shape, size, and feature, there is one very extensive nation that inhabits the east of Asia. It includes the eastern and western Tartars of the Chinese authors, the Calmucs, the Chinese, the Japponese, the Malays, and other tribes inhabiting what is called the peninsula of India beyond the Ganges; and the islands to the south and east of this, as far at least as New Guinea. This, however, is speaking in a very general sense, many foreign races being intermixed with the nation, and, perhaps, many tribes belonging to it being scattered beyond the limits I have mentioned.

'This nation may be distinguished by a short, squat, robust, fleshy stature, and by features highly different from those of an European. The face is somewhat in the shape of a lozenge, the forehead and chin being sharpened, whilst at the cheek bones it is very broad: unless this be what is meant by the conical head of the Chinese, I confess myself at a loss to understand what that is. The eyebrows, or superciliary ridges, in this nation project very little, and the eyes are very narrow, and placed rather obliquely in the head, the external angles being the highest. The nose is very small, but has not, like that of the negro, the appearance of having been flattened; and the apertures of the nostrils, which in the European are linear and parallel, in them are nearly circular and divergent; for the septum narium being much thickest towards the face, places them entirely out of the parallel line. The mouths of this nation are in general well shaped; their hair is harsh, lank, and black. Those of them that live even in the warmest climates, do not obtain the deep hue of the negro or Hindu; nor do such of them as live in the coldest countries, acquire the clear bloom of the European.' P. 219.

After some judicious remarks on the degree of evidence which the similarity of language affords respecting the identity of the origin of nations, our author distinguishes the different tribes, inhabiting this eastern district, as connected with the variety of language. We cannot trace the difference, which, on paper, appears considerable, though it may be less so when examined. If however, as M. Gosselin seems to have fully proved, the ancients knew nothing beyond the shores of this kingdom of the eastern regions, what they have said of China must be referred to Burma; and when we meet with people called Tai and Kathee, we approach to the ancient appellation of countries which we have supposed to be China. From different parts of this paper major Rennel seems to have erred in his eastern geo-

graphy, and to have placed Ava much too far eastward. Ptolemy certainly committed a similar error, in a greater degree.

'XVIII. On the Chronology of the Hindus. By Captain Francis Wilford.'

Captain Wilford's learned and judicious researches tend to humble the expiring vanity of Hindostan, which was ambitious of carrying its chronology to a very remote æra. This faithful extract from the puranas brings their computation within reasonable bounds, within the limits of sacred and profane history. The real chronology of the Hindus, divested of fable, appears very coincident with that of the Jews. Captain Wilford supposes, with great appearance of reason, that the puranas are only modern compilations from originals which no longer exist.

From the Supreme Being, according to the Indian chronologists, sprang Brahma, and from him Adima, the first man, whose wife Pricriti is, among other appellations, called Iva, or like I. The duration of the world they divide into five periods (calpas); and a deity is supposed to preside over each. We have reached the fourth in their opinions. On the termination of the reign of each deity his successor is said to devour the whole; and as all animals and plants are supposed to be the phallus of this deity (Chronus), at the end of this period he is said to be deprived of this phallus by his successor. The classical reader will at once see the origin of the fables respecting the Grecian Saturn in this legend, and the absurdity of its application to the father of the *Cretan* Jupiter. It was, in reality, the fable of an early æra awkwardly adapted to a comparatively modern legend. After many idle fancies of this kind, respecting the seven menus, the puranas assume the form of more sober histories, and, assigning two sons to Adima, record his progeny in a manner not very different from that of Sanchoniathon. The Prithu of the puranas seems to have been Noah, and his three sons Sharma, Charma, and Jyápati, to have been children of his more advanced age, or to have been born after the flood.

A singular circumstance occurs in the fourth menu, where the famous war between the elephants and crocodiles is asserted to have happened in the 'sacred isles of the west.' Where these sacred islands were situated, we are not informed: but the churning of the ocean, which is declared to have happened in the Sea of Milk, so called '*because it washes the shores of the White Island, the chief of the sacred isles in the west*,' seems to fix their situation in this country. Captain Wilford remarks, that the objection, derived from the distance, has the less force, as the bramins themselves confess a more western origin, and say that they descended into Hindostan through the plains of Hari-dwar; adding, that Atri, a son of Noah, carried the vedas from the

summit of Meru, the abode of the gods, a high mountain on the west and the north of India, first to the sacred isles, then to the Nile, and lastly to the borders of India. Sacred history fixes the first inhabitants of the globe in Chaldea, and the deluge did not greatly change their habitation; yet that the Cassiterides ever shared the attention of these early settlers is increble, while on the other hand a peculiar and insulated hierarchy, apparently of eastern origin, and some festivals resembling those of the east, almost exclusively, with a few circumstances of less import, arrest the judgement for a moment, and keep the balance still suspended.

Various circumstances of the early history of India are added, which must not detain us. We may however observe, that the Yavans or Greeks are mentioned as the auxiliaries of Chandra-Gupta; and we may imagine, from their information, that Alexander (Chandra-Gupta's contemporary) may have engaged in the eastern expedition. Prachi, in the sanscrit, is the east; hence the ancient Prasii; and Bengal, the country of Gangara, from which the inhabitants were perhaps called by the Grecians Gangaridæ. From Bali-putra, a son of Bali, the Greeks seem to have made Palipatra and Palibrotha, a city built, according to Diodorus, by the Indian Hercules, who is called Bala (by Cicero, Belus) and Hericula, as the descendant of Heri or Vishnu. The disputed situation of Palibrotha is reconciled with some ingenuity by our author, and placed at the confluence of the old Coosy with the Ganges, at no great distance from the spot where Rajè-meḥal now stands. Some coincidences of the Indian and Grecian history, as well as of the former with sacred history, are added, which are equally curious and interesting, but which would lead us too far. It is sufficient to observe, that Mr. Wilford seems to think that the chronology of the Hindoos may be correct, as mentioned by Megasthenes and Albumazar; and that the Bramins, supposing the creation of the world to have been connected with particular conjunctions of the heavenly bodies, adjusted with little skill a civil history from this period. Such legends seem to have been framed after the æra of Megasthenes, who had the best means of information and has not mentioned the extravagancies of their pretended antiquity. On the whole, though we do not coincide with all our author's remarks, and wish them sometimes to have been more compacted, we must express our admiration of his talents, and our approbation of his interesting essay.

'XIX. Remarks on the Names of the Cabirian Deities, and on some Words used in the Mysteries of Eleusis. By Captain Francis Wilford.'

We cannot give an adequate idea of this short but valuable paper, without employing the words of the ingenious writer.

' In the Adhuta cosa we find the following legends, which have an obvious relation to the deities worshipped in the mysteries of Samothrace.

' In Patala (or the infernal regions) resides the sovereign queen of the Nagas (large snakes or dragons:) she is beautiful, and her name is Asyoruca. There, in a cave, she performed tapasya with such rigorous austerity, that fire sprang from her body, and formed numerous agni-tiraths (places of sacred fire) in Patala. These fires, forcing their way through the earth, waters, and mountains, formed various openings or mouths, called from thence the flaming mouths, or juálá-muc'hi. By Samudr (Oceanus) a daughter was born unto her called Ramá-dévi. She is most beautiful; she is Lacshmi; and her name is A'syóicershá or A'syótcrishta. Like a jewel she remains concealed in the ocean.

' The Dharma-Raja, or King of Justice, has two countenances; one is mild and full of benevolence; those alone who abound with virtue, see it. He holds a court of justice, where are many assistants, among whom are many just and pious kings: Chitragupta acts as chief secretary. These holy men determine what is dharma and adharma, just and unjust. His (dharma rajas) servant is called Carmala: he brings the righteous on celestial cars, which go of themselves, whenever holy men are to be brought in, according to the directions of the Dharma-Rája, who is the sovereign of the Pitris. This is called his divine countenance, and the righteous alone do see it. His other countenance or form is called Yama; this the wicked alone can see. It has large teeth, and a monstrous body. Yama is the lord of Patala; there he orders some to be beaten, some to be cut to pieces, some to be devoured by monsters, &c. His servant is called Cashmala, who, with ropes round their necks, drags the wicked over rugged paths, and throws them headlong into hell. He is unmerciful, and hard is his heart: every body trembles at the sight of him. According to Mnaseas, as cited by the scholiast of Appollonius Rhodius, the names of the Cabirian gods were Axieros, or Ceres, or the Earth; Axiocersa or Proserpine; Axiocersos or Pluto; to whom they add a fourth called Casmillus, the same with the infernal Mercury.

' Axieros is obviously derived from Asyoruca, or rather from Asyoru, or Asyorus; for such is the primitive form; which signifies literally, she whose face is most beautiful.

' Axiocersa is derived from Asyotcersa, a word of the same import with the former, and which was the sacred name of Proserpine. This is obviously derived from the sanscrit Prasarparni, or she who is surrounded by large snakes and dragons. Nonnus represents her as surrounded by two enormous snakes, who constantly watched over her. She was ravished by Jupiter in the shape of an enormous dragon. She was generally supposed to be his daughter; but the Arcadians, according to Pausanias, insisted that she was the daughter of Ceres and Neptune; with whom the ancient mythologists often confound Oceanus. As she is declared, in the sacred

books of the Hindus, to be the same with Lacshmi, her consort of course is Vishnu, who rules, according to the puranas, in the west, and also during the greatest part of the night. In this sense Vishnu is the Dis of the western mythologists, the black Jupiter of Statius; for Vishnu is represented of a black, or dark azure complexion: Pluto or Yama is but a form of Vishnu. The titles of Dis or Ades appear to me to be derived from A'di or A'din one of the names of Vishnu. When Cicero says, *Terrena autem vis omnes atque natura, Diti patri dedicata est;* that is to say, That nature, and the powers or energy of the earth, are under the direction of Dis. This has no relation to the judge of departed souls, but solely belongs to Vishnu.

'Axiocersos, or in sanscrit A's'yotcersa, or A's'yotcersas, was Pluto or Dis, and was meant for Vishnu. Vishnu is always represented as extremely beautiful; but I never found A's'yotcersa among his titles: he is sometimes called Atcersa, a word of the same import.

'Cashmalá or Cashmalás is obviously the Casmilus of the western mythologists. The appellation of Cabiri, as a title of these deities, is unknown to the Hindus; and, I believe, by the Cabirian gods, we are to understand the gods worshipped by a nation, a tribe or society of men called Cabires. The Cuveras or Cuberas, as it is generally pronounced, are a tribe of inferior deities, possessed of immense riches, and who are acquainted with all places under, or above ground, abounding with precious metals and gems. Their history in the Puranas begins with the first menu, and no mention is made in it of floods, at least my learned friends tell me so. They are represented with yellow eyes, like the Pingacshas (of whom we spoke in a former essay on Egypt,) and perhaps may be the same people; certain it is the Pingacshas worshipped the Cabirian gods. Diodorus Siculus says, that the invention of fire, and the working of mines was attributed to them; and we find a Cabirus represented with a hammer in his hand.

'At the conclusion of the mysteries of Eleusis, the congregation was dismissed in these words: Κογξ, Ὄμ, Παξ; *conx, om, pax.* These mysterious words have been considered hitherto as inexplicable; but they are pure sanscrit, and used to this day by Bráhmens at the conclusion of religious rites. They are thus written in the language of the gods, as the Hindus call the language of their sacred books, canscha, om, pacsha.

'Canscha signifies the object of our most ardent wishes.

'Om is the famous monosyllable used both at the beginning and conclusion of a prayer, or any religious rite, like amen.

'Pacsha exactly answers to the obsolete Latin word *vix*: it signifies change, course, stead, place, turn of work, duty, fortune. It is used particularly after pouring water in honour of the gods and Pitris. It appears also from Hesychius,

' I. That these words were pronounced aloud at the conclusion of every momentous transaction, religious or civil.

' II. That when judges, after hearing a cause gave their suffrages, by dropping of pebbles of different colours into a box, the noise made by each pebble was called by one of these three words (if not by all three) but more probably, by the word pacsha; as the turn or pacsha of the voting judge was over.

' When lawyers pleaded in a court of justice, they were allowed to speak two or three hours, according to the importance of the cause; and for this purpose, there was a Clepsydras, or water clock ready, which, making a certain noise at the end of the expired pacsha, vix, or turn, this noise was called pacsha, &c.

' The word pacsha is pronounced vacsh and vact in the vulgar dialects, and from it the obsolete Latin word vix is obviously derived. The Greek language has certainly borrowed largely from the sanscrit: but it always affects the spoken dialects of India; the language of the Latins in particular does, which is acknowledged to have been an ancient dialect of the Greek.' P. 297.

' XX. Account of the Pagoda at Perwuttum. Extract of a Journal by Captain Colin Mackenzie.'

The Bramins are equally expert, as ecclesiastical jugglers, with the monks of St. Januarius. The idol of this pagoda, which is an oblong stone in a silver case, is visible only by the sun-beams reflected from a concave speculum. It may be therefore occasionally invisible, at the will of the priests, if the votaries should not be liberal, or for any other reason. The idol is the lingam or generative power.

' XXI. Remarks on the principal Æras and Dates of the ancient Hindus.' By Mr. John Bentley.

These remarks are truly valuable, but can only be consulted with advantage in the work itself, since an abridgement is impracticable. The distinction between astronomical and poetic æras is the clue which alone can unravel many of the intricacies of the Hindoo chronology; the astronomic year is commonly equal to 1000 poetic years. An astronomic system different from that of Meya, is called the Puranic system, depending on the revolutions of either Jupiter or Saturn. This our author reconciles with apparent probability to the system of Meya, author of the surya sidhanta.

' XXII. On the Religious Ceremonies of the Hindus, and of the Bráhmens especially. By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.'

This is the first of a series of essays which promise valuable information. They are intended to contain 'an abridged explanation of the ceremonies, and verbal translations of the prayers used at rites, which a Hindu is bound constantly to perform.' These religious practices are now detailed without a comment, but will be followed by observations. Those of the paper

before us will not be generally interesting: they consist of wild unmeaning ceremonies, and the best parts, taken from the commentaries of the Bramins, would perhaps disgust rather than please the general reader. They are, however, in many respects curious; and what relates to the supreme being, as light, is wildly and eccentrically sublime. But how different is it from the simple dignity of 'Let there be light, and there was light,' with which this part is compared by the editor!

'XXIII. The Rudhirádhyáya, or Sanguinary chapter; translated from the Calica Puran. By W. C. Blaquiere, Esq.'

That human victims were, in early ages, believed to be most efficacious as expiatory or vicarious sacrifices, is well known. The ancient ceremonies, however, which regulate this horrid system, fill us with painful disgust. The Rudhirádhyáya treats of other sacrifices besides those of human beings, and may at least illustrate the history of the human mind, by showing to what detestable enormities abject superstition will occasionally sink it.

'XXIV. An Account of the Pearl Fishery in the Gulph of Manar, in March and April, 1797. By Henry J. Le Beck, Esq.'

The account before us, though by no means new, is in many respects interesting. We cannot conveniently abridge it, but will select the author's description of a pearl fish.

'Gmelin asks if the animal of the mytilus margaritiferus is an ascidia? See Linn. Syst. Nat. tom. I. p. vi. 3350. This induces me to believe that it has never yet been accurately described: it does not resemble the ascidia of Linnæus, and may, perhaps, form a new genus. It is fastened to the upper and lower shells by two white flat pieces of muscular substance, which are called by Houttuin, ears, and extend about two inches from the thick part of the body, growing gradually thinner. The extremity of each ear lies loose, and is surrounded by a double brown fringed line. These lie almost the third of an inch from the outer part of the shell, and are continually moved by the animal. Next to these, above and below, are situated two other double fringed moveable substances, like the branchiæ of a fish. These ears and fringes are joined to a cylindrical piece of flesh, of the size of a man's thumb, which is harder and of a more muscular nature than the rest of the body. It lies about the centre of the shells, and is firmly attached to the middle of each. This, in fact, is that part of the pearl fish which serves to open and shut the shells. Where this column is fastened, we find on the flesh deep impressions, and on the shell various nodes of round or oblong forms, like imperfect pearls. Between this part, and the hinge (cardo), lies the principal body of the animal, separated from the rest, and shaped like a bag. The mouth is near the hinge of the shell, enveloped in a veil, and has a double flap or lip

on each ſide; from thence we obſerve the throat (œſophagus) deſcending like a thread to the ſtomach. Cloſe to the mouth there is a carved browniſh tongue, half an inch in length, with an obtuſe point; on the concave ſide of this deſcends a furrow, which the animal opens and ſhuts, and probably uſes to convey food to its mouth*. Near its middle are two bluiſh ſpots, which ſeem to be the eyes. In a pretty deep hole near the baſe of the tongue, lies the beard (byſſus), faſtened by two fleſhy roots, and conſiſting of almoſt one hundred fibres, each an inch long, of a dark green colour, with a metallic luſtre; they are undivided, parallel, and flattened. In general the byſſus is more than three quarters of an inch, without the cleft (rima); but if the animal is diſturbed, it contracts it conſiderably. The top of each of theſe threads terminates in a circular gland or head, like the ſtygma of many plants. With this byſſus they faſten themſelves to rocks, corals, and other ſolid bodies; by it the young pearl fiſh cling to the old ones, and with it the animal procures its food, by extending and contracting it at pleaſure. Small ſhell fiſh, on which they partly live, are often found clinging to the former. The ſtomach lies cloſe to the root of the beard, and has, on its lower ſide, a protracted obtuſe point. Above the ſtomach are two ſmall red bodies, like lungs; and from the ſtomach goes a long channel or gut, which takes a circuit round the muſcular column above-mentioned, and ends in the anus, which lies oppoſite to the mouth, and is covered with a ſmall thin leaf, like a flap. Though the natives pretend to diſtinguiſh the ſexes, by the appearance of the ſhell, I could not find any genitalia. The large flat ones they call males, and thoſe that are thick, concave, and vaulted, they call females, or pedoo-chippy; but, on a cloſe inſpection, I could not obſerve any viſible ſexual difference.' P. 405.

The pearls are found in the ſofter parts of the animal, and the author ſuppoſes them be concretions ſimilar to the bezoar: an old opinion, which later diſcoveries, as we have had occaſion to intimate, fully confute.

'XXV. Aſtronomical Obſervations made in the upper Provinces of Hinduſtan. By William Hunter, Eſq.'

Theſe obſervations will be beſt underſtood in the work itſelf.

* The depth at which the pearl fiſh generally is to be found, hindered me from paying any attention to the locomotive power, which I have not the leaſt doubt it poſſeſſes, uſing for this purpoſe its tongue. This conjecture is ſtrengthened by the accurate obſervations made on muſcles by the celebrated Reaumur, in which he found that this body ſerves them as a leg or arm, to move from one place to another. Though the divers are very ignorant with regard to the œconomy of the pearl fiſh, this changing of habitation has been long ſince obſerved by them. They allege, that it alters its abode when diſturbed by an enemy or in ſearch of food. In the former caſe they ſay it commonly deſcends from the ſummit of the bank to its declivity.

Letters from Italy, between the Years 1792 *and* 1798, *containing a View of the Revolutions in that Country, from the Capture of Nice by the French Republic to the Expulsion of Pius VI. from the Ecclesiastical State: likewise pointing out the matchless Works of Art which still embellish Pisa, Florence, Siena, Rome, Naples, Bologna, Venice, &c. With Instructions for the Use of Invalids and Families who may not choose to incur the Expence attendant upon travelling with a Courier. By Mariana Starke.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 14*s. Boards.* Phillips. 1800.

TRAVELLERS who communicate their information to the public have usually chosen the epistolary form, on account of its many and manifest advantages: but we never remember an instance in which it has been so improperly adopted as in the present volumes. The first and second letters are of the kind which we expect from a volume of travels. They contain an account of the journey from Nice to Geneva. A curious instance of Voltaire's vanity occurs in the first letter.

'During our residence at Secheron we took a drive to see Voltaire's villa at Ferney, with an account of which I shall close my letter. This house, since the death of its owner, has had many masters; but they all have deemed it sacrilege to alter any thing, and, consequently, the rooms are furnished just the same as when he died. The first thing which caught my eyes on entering the hall, was a large picture, composed by Voltaire himself, and executed by a wretched artist whom he met with at Ferney: that Voltaire was the vainest of men I have always heard, but that any man could have the overweening vanity to compose such a picture of himself is scarcely credible. In the fore-ground stands this celebrated philosopher, holding the Henriade, which he is presenting to Apollo, who has just descended from Olympus in order to receive it—in the back-ground is the Temple of Memory, towards which flies Fame, at the same time pointing to the Henriade—the Muses and Graces are surrounding Voltaire, but the latter seem in the act of carrying his bust to the Temple of Memory—the heroes and heroines of the Henriade are standing astonished at his wonderful talents; the authors and authoresses who wrote against him are falling into the infernal regions, which gape to receive them and their works; while Envy and her imps are expiring at his feet—the family of Calas, likewise, is exhibited in this picture. From the hall we entered a handsome saloon, ornamented with a design in china for the tomb of a lady supposed to have died in child-birth, but who was, in fact, buried alive; it represents the lady and her child bursting through the tomb, which is broken by the artist in so natural a manner that one is ready to exclaim, "What a pity it is that this beautiful monument has met with an accident!" In

Voltaire's bed-room are portraits of his friends, and the vase wherein his heart was placed before its removal to Paris; this monument is of black marble, plain but neat, and immediately under that part which contained the heart is written, " Mon esprit est partout, et mon cœur est ici:" and over the heart is written in French (I forget the precise words), " My manes are at peace, because my heart is with you;" alluding, I presume, to the surrounding portraits, namely, those of Frederic the Great of Prussia, and Lequain the player, the late empress of Russia, and madame Dillon Cramer. Voltaire himself is in the centre, and in various parts of the room are Newton, Milton, and several other great men, both English and French. Lequain's name reminds me of a famous French pun, which I cannot resist mentioning, as it pleased me very much. " Une dame Anglaise disoit un jour, que le Théatre Français avoit beaucoup perdu en perdant le célebre Lequain. Mais, dit un Français, qui se trouvoit dans cette compagnie, nous avons encore parmi nous l'esprit, et le merite de Lequain. Comment cela? repliqua l'Anglaise. C'est, reprit le Français, que Lequain, avant de traverser le fleuve, a quitté ses talens sur la rive." Vol. i. P. 20.

Mrs. Starke returned to Nice in time to witness the capture of that city by general Anselme in 1792. Thence she went by water to Genoa and to Leghorn.—The 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th letters, relate to political events. A rapid sketch is given of the conquests of Buonaparte; and our wonder is excited at the successes of this extraordinary man by a previous account of the difficulties which opposed him.

' In 1794, general Massena, a Nissard by birth, and formerly in the Sardinian service, made himself master of Saorgio, to the amazement of every person acquainted with the strength of that place, and the wretched state of Massena's troops, who were almost destitute of food, clothes, and military stores: but money, united with the treacherous disposition of the Piedmontese, and the specious arguments of the French general, supplied the means of conquest, and a golden key opened the gates of a fortress, which the best appointed troops must have assailed in vain: but, notwithstanding this acquisition, a total want of necessaries, and a pestilential fever, the natural consequence of famine, so much diminished the French forces both in Piedmont and on the Riva di Genova, that they remained almost wholly inactive till this year, when supplies of corn, which, in defiance of the British fleet, arrived safe at Genoa, at length restored the republican soldiers to some degree of health. Still, however, it seemed very improbable that troops dejected and enfeebled by sickness, and destitute of horses, cannon, and almost every other sinew of war, should soon become formidable to Italy, who, besides the barriers raised by nature for her defence, had now above two hundred thousand well appointed soldiers, ready to oppose the aggressions of her enemies; and, moreover, the Italian cli-

mate had ever proved fatal to French troops, and the Italian clergy still possessed sufficient influence over the common people, to render them inimical to a nation which openly professed its contempt of the Romish faith. The directory, aware of these obstacles, so likely to impede their plan of conquest, and feeling that it required no common genius to inspire their troops with energy, and provide them in a hostile land with necessaries which their own country could not supply, and without which it would be impossible to succeed, selected perhaps the only officer in their service capable of surmounting such difficulties, and appointed Buonaparte, who had so eminently distinguished himself at Toulon, the general in chief of this ragged army, which, added to the disadvantages above-mentioned, did not exceed fifty-six thousand men.

'The adventurous Corsican, at the opening of a campaign which has astonished all Europe, had no professed friends among the Italian states, except Genoa, Venice, and Tuscany, whose duke, in February 1795, declared himself the ally of France. It was therefore necessary that this modern Brennus should be equally political, prudent, and valorous; it was necessary (to use his own words) that his troops, though destitute of every thing, should overcome all things; that they should gain battles without cannon, pass rivers without bridges, perform forced marches without shoes, without brandy, and sometimes without bread; nay more, that they should be animated with such a love of glory as might guard them from that inclination for plunder and self-indulgence, so natural to troops who had long suffered the most cruel privations on the sterile rocks of the Riva di Genova; and, above all, that they should so behave in every captured city as to gain the applause of the vanquished people, and incline the citizens of other countries to open their gates. A man of moderate talents would have been discouraged by these numerous difficulties, but Buonaparte only thought of overcoming them: "If conquered (cried he), I cannot have too little to lose: and if conqueror, I can supply myself with every thing:" and so great was his influence over necessitous troops, so strict the discipline he established among them, that robbery never blasted their laurels without being punished by death; and so orderly was their behaviour in captured cities, that the approach of French armies soon ceased, in the eyes of Italy, to be an object of dread.' Vol. i. p. 58.

In noticing the siege of Mantua, Mrs. Starke relates an anecdote, the truth of which her residence in Italy must have enabled her to investigate, and which, interesting as it is, she probably would not have inserted, unless she believed it to be authentic.

'While the French were besieging this city, a convent, which lay exposed to the cannon of the garrison, was evacuated by its nuns, and immediately occupied by the besiegers; who, hearing groans

issue from underneath the building, humanely followed the sound, and discovered, in a damp and gloomy dungeon, a female seated on a crazy chair, and loaded with fetters, but whose countenance, though deeply furrowed by misery, looked youthful. On seeing the soldiers she earnestly petitioned for life and liberty: telling them, she had been four years confined in that cruel manner, for attempting to elope with a young man who had long been master of her heart: the soldiers instantly struck off her fetters; upon which she besought them to lead her into the open air. They represented, that on quitting the shelter of the convent she would be exposed to a shower of cannon-balls. "Ah!" replied the nun, "mourir, c'est rester ici!" Vol. i. p. 80.

The anecdotes of Buonaparte which we find in these letters are highly favourable to his character; and they deserve the more credit, as the authoress discovers no partiality for the French.

'The executive directory had ordered him not only to seize the property of British merchants at Leghorn, but that of every British subject in the Tuscan territories: he answered, however, "That he presumed the latter part of this command originated from some mistake; and, therefore, should forbear to execute it till he received further instructions." Meanwhile, he took care that British travellers should be informed of the impending danger, and gave to one English family (the only persons of our nation who had at that time applied to him) a passport which enabled them to travel through his camp, on their way to England, with perfect safety.' Vol. i. p. 96.

The following anecdote is improbable.

'Italy was a mine replete with wealth; and while the major part of her citizens, dazzled by specious promises, and fascinated by a phantom falsely called Liberty, were blind to the real intentions of their conqueror, he, though naturally enveloped with reserve, was led by a pretty woman to betray those intentions very plainly; for as he was dining at Milan with a large company of Italian ladies, one of them ventured to ask, "What he designed doing with Italy?" He made no reply—again she asked the same question—he still was silent—but, on its being repeated a third time, called for a lemon, cut it in two, squeezed all the juice out of one-half, threw it away; then squeezed the juice out of the other half, and threw that away likewise. Thus was the lady answered; but this expressive hint did not open the eyes of the Cisalpini, though Milan had already been compelled to furnish the French republic with twelve hundred thousand gold sequins, besides immense quantities of military stores.' Vol. i. p. 112.

If the story be true, it is evident that Buonaparte made his

lemonade to avoid replying at all, and that female vanity interpreted this into a figurative anſwer to an impertinent queſtion.

'I cannot (ſays Mrs. Starke) finiſh this ſketch of the moſt rapid and brilliant conqueſts ever gained in ſo ſhort a period, either by ancient or modern warriors, without lamenting, that a man whoſe great and amiable qualities at once excite our wonder and our praiſe, a man whoſe perſuaſive eloquence and conſummate policy taught Italy to call her rapacious and deſpotic conqueror the parent of her happineſs and freedom, ſhould have been betrayed, by the falſe principles of a French education, to eſtabliſh the dominion of blaſphemers, regicides, and robbers, dimming the luſtre of his courage, by deriving it from ideas of predeſtination, and eclipſing the ſplendour of his victories by the wickedneſs of the cauſe they were gained to ſupport. To that branch of French philoſophy, however, termed free-thinking, may we attribute the errors of Buonaparte, and the growth of thoſe licentious maxims and manners, which have brought an unoffending monarch to the guillotine, deſtroyed the peace of ſociety, and deluged Europe with blood.' Vol. i. p. 153.

The remainder of this volume, and the whole of the ſucceeding one, are utterly unintereſting to the general reader. Catalogues of pictures and of churches—notice to invalids that *this* church is damp, and *that* ought to be ſeen when the ſun ſhines—accounts of the prices of proviſions, and references to the beſt ſhops for perfumery and other articles, may be deemed uſeful information for travellers, and ſuch as ought to have been printed in a convenient ſize for a poſt-chaiſe pocket, under the title of the Traveller's Guide—not ſwollen into octavo volumes, and called Letters from Italy. Viſitants of that country will find theſe volumes uſeful: other readers will find nothing to intereſt them but the political part, and even this exhibits little novelty.

The moſt intereſting circumſtance related in the whole work is, perhaps, the following.

'One day, as I was walking with my family near Careggi, we ſaw a girl, perhaps ten or twelve years of age, watching a flock of goats, and at the ſame time ſpinning with great diligence; her tattered garments beſpoke extreme poverty, but her air was dignified, and her countenance ſo intereſting, that we were irreſiſtibly impelled to preſent her with two or three cracie. Joy and gratitude inſtantly animated her fine eyes, while, to our aſtoniſhment, ſhe exclaimed, "Never, till this moment, was I worth ſo much money!" Struck by her manner, we enquired her name; aſking, likewiſe, where her parents lived. "My name (replied ſhe) is Tereſa; but, alas, I have no parents!" "Who, then, takes care of you?" "The Ma-

donna." "But who brought you up?" "A peasant of Valombrosa; I was her nurse-child; I have heard her say my parents delivered me into her care, but that she did not know their name. As I grew up she almost starved me; and, what was still worse, beat me so cruelly, that at length I ran away from her." "And where do you live now?" "Yonder, in the plain (pointing to Val d'Arno). I have luckily found a mistress who feeds me and lets me sleep in her barn: this is her flock." "And are you happy now?" "O yes, very happy—at first, to be sure, 'twas lonesome lying in the barn by myself, 'tis so far from the house; but I am used to it now; and indeed I have not much time for sleep, being obliged to work at night when I come home; and I always go out with these goats at day-break: however, I do very well, for I get plenty of bread and grapes, and my mistress never beats me."

'Having learnt thus much, we presented our new acquaintance with a paul; but to describe the extasy this gift produced is impossible—"Now, (cried she, when a flood of tears had enabled her to speak) now, I can purchase a *corona*—now, I can go to mass, and petition the Madonna to preserve the good ladies at Careggi."

'On taking leave of this grateful girl, we desired she would sometimes pay us a visit; but, to our surprise, we neither saw nor heard of her again till the day before our departure from Careggi, when it appeared that, immediately after her interview with us, she had been seized with the natural small-pox, and, though unassisted by medicine, air and low living had at length restored her to health.

'During the next summer we again resided at Careggi; but, for a considerable time, saw nothing of Teresa; one day, however, we observed a beautiful white goat browsing near our gate, on opening which, we perceived our *protegée* with her whole flock. We eagerly enquired why we had not seen her before—"I was fearful of obtruding (replied she); but I have watched you at a distance, ladies, ever since your return; and I could not forbear coming a little nearer than usual to-day, in the hope that you might notice me. We now presented her with a scudo, and entreated that she would sometimes call upon us. "No, ladies, (answered the scrupulous girl) I am not properly dressed to enter your doors; but with the money you have kindly given me, I shall immediately purchase a stock of flax, and then, if I should have health to work very hard, I may soon be able, by selling my thread, to get decent apparel, and wait upon you, cloathed with the fruits of your bounty." And indeed it was not long ere we had the pleasure of seeing her come to visit us neatly clad, and exhibiting a picture of contentment.' Vol. ii. p. 407.

Analysis Fluxionum. Auctore Guil. Hales, D. D. Rectore de Killessandra, et nuper Trin. Coll. Dublin. Socio, ac Linguarum Orientalium Professore. Londini. *4to. 9s. Boards.* White. 1800.

An Analysis of Fluxions, by Dr. William Hales.

THIS is a very extraordinary *mélange*. From the title the reader might be led to expect a dry mathematical treatise upon fluxions; but mathematics, if they enter considerably into the author's plan, by no means occupy the whole of the volume; and the performance might with greater propriety have been entitled a mathematico-theologico-political rhapsody. The language is varied as much as the subject of each page. The writer has chosen the Latin for the basis; but he interlards it frequently with his own English, and his quotations are taken promiscuously from the English, French, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages. The page is also interspersed with large capitals, small capitals, and italics. In short, whether we look to the subjects, to the languages, to the printing in this work, we may exclaim, 'Motley's the only wear!' We admire the learning, the science, the depth of thought, which are continually bursting forth; for the writer, like the Pythian goddess, is overpowered by his learning, and, amidst a superabundance of materials, he fails in the skill of arrangement.

The work is divided into two parts, to which are added two appendices. In the first part is given the history of fluxions, in the second we find the method of fluxions. The first appendix investigates the ancient analysis, the second treats of æther, sensorium, Maclaurin, d'Alembert, the heathen gods, and the Supreme Being.

On the subject of the invention of fluxions no new light is thrown. The writer gives the palm both to Newton and Leibnitz; and, like many other persons, attributing much to the peculiar powers of these rival chiefs, he supposes that they might both have fallen upon the same method nearly at the same time. This is a singular phænomenon in the history of science; and the investigation of it, as it may now be impartially considered, might lead to much useful information. We agree with our author that both derived their inventions, if such a name may be applied to the improvement of a previous discovery, from the same sources of science; 'ex iisdem fontibus scientiæ utrique patentibus, tandem eadem elementa metaphysica, eadem principia mathematica methodi sive fluxionalis sive differentialis, hausisse:' but we should have been better pleased if he had pointed out to us these sources, and shown the steps which led to the present process with algebraical terms going under the names of fluxional or differential method.

He indeed refers to Barrow's method of drawing tangents; but we should rather go higher, and refer the origin of the fluxional method to Napier, whose description of logarithms by the motion of points on two lines, is the real foundation of the supposed Newtonian and Leibnitzian discoveries.

The application of Napier's method, with some improvements by Leibnitz and Newton, was hailed by the world as a most extraordinary conception of the human mind, calculated to extend the bounds of science beyond the reach of mortal ken. Time has dissipated much of this admiration; and the harsh hypothesis of velocity, in the investigation of the changes of algebraical terms, raised some formidable antagonists, who lamented that this new method seemed likely to overturn the simplicity of ancient demonstrations, and that, if it sometimes accelerated the practice, it endangered the theory of mathematical knowledge. Among these adversaries appear the names of Berkeley, Landen, d'Alembert, Torelli, La Grange; and, if the name is yet concealed, the discriminating powers of a northern professor in this island are now known to be arranged on the same side of the question. Such opponents may naturally excite doubts of the excellence of the new method, the more particularly when all writers find such difficulty in the explanation of its first principles. Our author makes the basis of the whole to be the doctrine of prime and ultimate ratios; and nothing could equal our surprise when we found, that, after describing the accounts given of fluxions by Colson and Maclaurin, the name of Robins, whose treatise on this subject excels, both in clearness and elegance of demonstration, was entirely omitted.

That prime and ultimate ratios may be made the basis of the doctrine of fluxions by any writer, is certain; for this author has done it; but we may be allowed to hesitate before we adopt it either as the easiest method of initiation into this science, or as one not liable to considerable objections. The pure notion of a fluxion may be better conceived by taking the fluxion of a triangle, where both the abscissa and the ordinate flow uniformly, from which the fluxion of the triangle is evidently seen to be in the ratio of the ordinate multiplied into the fluxion of the abscissa, whether the space described by the uniform motion of the ordinate be taken always to be an inch or a thousand miles. Hence the fluxion of a square will be found to be double that of the fluxion of the straight line multiplied into the side of the square; and thus the fluxions of any powers of a variable quantity, or the fluxions of any variable algebraical term, may be derived without reference to prime and ultimate ratios.

Sir Isaac Newton's demonstration of the fluxion of a rectangle is subject to great difficulties; and it is not surprising that Col-

son and Maclaurin, according to our author, did not see thoroughly into its nature, or that Euler and the modern mathematicians should substitute a new process, in which, two infinitely small quantities being neglected, the same result is obtained. The latter process is unsatisfactory; for, in the multiplication of two algebraical terms, the notion of velocity is entirely lost, and the rejection of these infinitely small quantities cannot reconcile this point to sound reasoning, that the result is the ratio of the velocity of a point moving upon a straight line, which increases in the same proportion with a variable parallelogram. The Newtonian demonstration fails in the same manner; for it is in fact the result of the multiplication of numbers. The difference between $\overline{A-\frac{1}{2}a} \times \overline{B-\frac{1}{2}b}$, and $\overline{A+\frac{1}{2}a} \times \overline{B+\frac{1}{2}b}$, is evidently $aB+bA$; or, in Newton's words, 'laterum incrementis totis *a* et *b* generatur rectanguli incrementum $aB+bA$:' but why the fluxion of the rectangle AB should be proportional to the increment of a smaller rectangle, is not proved; nor can it, we conceive, be derived from this proposition. To prove it, our author is compelled to have recourse to the doctrine of centripetal forces; but he afterwards wisely neglects this foundation laid by Newton, and, from the complements of a parallelogram about its diagonal, explains its fluxion, and deduces the common fluxional expressions for algebraical terms.

The appendix on the ancient analysis is too concise for such a subject. This brevity is the more remarkable, as the excellence or defects of Newton, in adopting or deviating from the strictness of ancient demonstration, merited particular investigation. In the second appendix, which occupies above a third of the work, the writer is entirely in his own element. He vindicates the chief of philosophers from the injudicious censures of professor Robinson on a vibrating æther, and displays his learning with great success on the æther of the ancients. The contrast between the piety of Maclaurin and the melancholy end of D'Alembert, though out of place in this instance, can scarcely be brought too often to the thoughts of modern philosophers, that they may reflect on the nature of true wisdom and philosophy, and, in the midst of their speculations on matter, recognise the author of life, and the wisdom of his superintending providence, whether it regards the motions of worlds, of individuals, or of nations. The comments also on the various names of the Supreme Being are replete with sound learning; and, though we think that in speaking of Kimchi, Buxtorf, Parkhurst, their opinions might have been noticed with less degrading epithets than 'varia, absurda, impia,' we submit with great pleasure our author's mode of accounting for the plural termination of

one of the names of God in the Hebrew language to the criticiſms of the learned. *Elohim* he derives from *El*, the powerful one, whence angels, judges, heroes, are called *Elohim*; and, to denote the power of the Supreme, he is called *El Elohim*, or the ruler of the rulers. In proceſs of time, by an ellipſis, the word *El* was frequently omitted; and, when Jehova was aſſumed for the peculiar name of divinity, the appropriate epithet of power being retained, he was called Jehova Elohim, that is, Jehova el Elohim. Whenever the terms Jehova Elohim occur, the verb is in the ſingular, to agree with Jehova; when Elohim is uſed alone, the verb is in the ſingular, to agree with El, underſtood. This interpretation is ingenious, and far ſuperior to the very embarraſſed account given by Parkhurſt and many other writers.

On the whole, we cannot diſmiſs this volume without applauding the various talents and extenſive reading of this writer, which he devotes, though not always under the guidance of the cooleſt judgement, to the cauſe of religion and philoſophy. He can meet with few readers; for a knowledge of five languages, and a conſiderable acquaintance with the abſtruſe parts of the mathematics and ancient metaphyſics, are neceſſary to enable the reader to derive pleaſure from the work. He has not added much to the ſtores of our knowledge; but he has collected a variety of matter, which, though not arranged in the beſt form, cannot fail of enlivening the leiſure hours of the ſcholar, the divine, and the philoſopher.

Natural Hiſtory, for the Uſe of Schools; founded on the Linnæan Arrangement of Animals; *with Popular Deſcriptions in the Manner of Goldſmith and Buffon. Illuſtrated by Forty-ſix Copper-plates, repreſenting One-hundred and fifty of the moſt curious Objects. By William Mavor, LL. D. &c.* 12*mo.* 4*s.* 6*d.* *Bound.* Phillips. 1800.

IN appreciating various plans of education, we once had occaſion to obſerve, that the order in which different inſtructions ſhould be conveyed muſt depend on that in which the various intellectual and indeed corporeal functions are evolved or perfected. Curioſity appears in a very early ſtate; and memory is one of the firſt mental functions which advance to maturity. On this account, to learn languages is an early taſk; and though much time is often employed in this buſineſs, yet it is during a period in which little elſe can be done. Modern refiners have propoſed geography and natural hiſtory as ſciences in which the memory is chiefly employed, and with which the eager curioſity of youth may be highly gratified. The details, however, of the former are dry and unin-

tereſting; and the taſk is found to be tedious and irkſome. Indeed, geography is ſeldom ſtudied with ſucceſs but in connection with thoſe branches of knowledge to which it is ſubſervient, or in voyages of diſcovery. Natural hiſtory may therefore be recommended as moſt adviſeable for youthful ſtudy. This, however, is an ample field, and the young ſtudent muſt not be allowed to explore it without the aſſiſtance and diſcretional regulations of a tutor. 'A muſter-roll of names' may be eaſily learned by a child, but will be ſoon forgotten. This is the caſe with the rules of grammar, which are only retained till their ſubſtance is fixed in the mind by their application. It is of more conſequence to direct the obſervation of children to things, and to employ their memory on theſe. They have a ſpirit of obſervation, and an acuteneſs of diſtinction, which, if properly directed, may be greatly improved; and, if this ſpirit be exerciſed in the great outlines, the mind will be expanded, and much future labour ſpared. In the ſtudy of natural hiſtory, the obſervation ſhould be directed to natural aſſociations, and the memory exerted in retaining theſe, while curioſity might be gratified by the details of manners or properties. Thus the letters of Rouſſeau on botany, familiariſed in their ſtyle, and illuſtrated by appropriate plates, would form a good introduction to this ſcience. A familiar work on mineralogy, illuſtrating the principal claſſes, and particularly the ſhapes of cryſtals, might lead to a general knowledge, and inſenſibly give a ſure and ſcientific baſis to future purſuits. Children would certainly obtain, in this way, a foundation on which they might build; or, if the ſubject ſhould be ſtudied no more, they would acquire that knowledge which would enable them to join in converſation, without betraying a diſgraceful ignorance.

From this introduction our readers may conclude, that we approve our author's general plan; and we may add, that its execution deſerves our commendation. We ſhould have indeed preferred, for the general arrangement, the ſyſtem of Pennant, as more purely natural, and more eaſily diſtinguiſhed by Engliſh terms. Dr. Mavor has adopted the diſtribution of Linnæus, has given a general account of each claſs, and has diſtinctly deſcribed ſome of the more ſtriking objects compriſed in it. In the ſelection of theſe he has ſhown great judgement; and the deſcriptions are entertaining and intereſting. The plates, however, are unequal: thoſe of the quadrupeds are ſuperior to the reſt.

Of men Dr. Mavor deſcribes ſix varieties, the Laplanders, the Tartars, the ſouthern Aſiatics, the African Negroes, American Indians, and Europeans. To theſe diſtinctions we ſhall make no objection, as they are well adapted to youthful minds. We ſhall ſelect ſome ſpecimens with little diſcrimination; for

the work preserves an even tenor, one part scarcely excelling another.

' THE SEAL, OR SEA CALF.

' There are several distinct species of this genus; but we shall confine our observations principally to the common seal, which is a native of the European seas.

' This animal resembles a quadruped in some respects, and a fish in others. The head is round, and the nose broad, with oblong nostrils and large sparkling black eyes; it has no proper external ears, but there are two apertures which answer the same purpose. The body is thickest at the junction of the neck; and thence goes tapering towards the tail, and is covered with thick bristly shining hair of various shades. The feet are of singular conformation; and, were it not for the claws with which they are armed, might well be taken for fins; and they actually do assist the animal in swimming, by means of their connecting webs.

' The ordinary length of the seal is from about five to six feet. It is found in every quarter of the globe, but chiefly towards the southern and northern regions. It swarms near the arctic circle, and the lower parts of South America, in both oceans; it generally lives in the water, where it subsists on fish. Sometimes, however, it ventures ashore, and basks on the rocks; but, the instant it is disturbed, it plunges to the bottom.

' On the shores of the north and icy seas, where the inhabitants are few, seals may be seen by thousands on the rocks, suckling their young. Like all gregarious animals in a wild state, they keep a centinel on the watch; and, on the first signal of danger, instantly disappear.

' It is remarkable, that seals generally forsake the sea during storms and tempests, and repair to the shore, along which they sport, enjoying the conflict of the wind and waves. They also migrate from one part of the world to another in immense droves, accompanied by their young, either from a native instinct to plant new colonies, or driven away by the older inhabitants of their native depths.

' The female generally produces two or three young ones at a time. The young seals are remarkably docile; they at once distinguish and obey the voice of their dam, amid the numerous clamours of the herd, which sometimes resemble the bleatings of sheep, and sometimes the shriller outcries of a cat. The males frequently have violent conflicts, in defence of their mates, and watch over the conduct of the latter with a jealous eye.

' The flesh of the seal is counted wholesome, but these animals are killed chiefly for the sake of their skin and oil. To the Greenlanders they furnish almost every necessary of life, and are, indeed, a principle article of their wealth. In former times, the flesh of the seal was esteemed delicate eating at the tables of the great and opu-

lent even in our own country; but, though to be met with in abundance on ſeveral parts of the Britiſh coaſts, we never find them entering into a modern bill of fare.' P. 58.

' THE RHINOCEROS.

' Of this animal there are two varieties, one with a ſingle, the other with two horns on its ſnout. Next to the elephant, it is the moſt powerful of quadrupeds, and the moſt bulky, if we except the hippopotamus. Its length is commonly twelve feet, its height ſix or ſeven, and its circumference is nearly equal to its length.

' Except in ſtrength, however, nature has not endowed the rhinoceros with any qualities that exalt it above the ordinary rank of quadrupeds; its principal réſources conſiſt in its moveable lip, and the offenſive weapon on its noſe, which is peculiar to the kind. This is indeed a very formidable inſtrument of annoyance or defence: it is ſolid throughout, and ſituated ſo advantageouſly, that it protects the whole viſage, and enables the animal to aſſail its foes with irreſiſtible effect. It frequently rips open the belly of its antagoniſt, and is dreaded by the tiger more than the elephant itſelf.

' The body and limbs are covered with a blackiſh ſkin, ſo impenetrable as to reſiſt the claws of the moſt ferocious animals, as well as the ſpear, and the ſhot of the hunters. Being incapable of either extenſion or contraction, it is rolled up in large folds at the neck, the ſhoulders, and the rump, in order to facilitate the motion of the head and limbs; which laſt are maſſy and furniſhed with large feet, armed with three toes.

' The horn of the rhinoceros ſometimes meaſures nearly four feet in length, by ſix or ſeven inches diameter at the baſe. It is commonly of a brown or olive colour, and is more eſteemed by the Indians than the ivory of the elephant; not on account of real advantage derived from it, but for certain medicinal qualities which it poſſeſſes, or is fancied to poſſeſs.

' Without being ferocious or carnivorous, the rhinoceros is perfectly untractable. He is merely among large, what the common hog is among ſmall, animals; temerarious, and brutal, without intelligence, ſentiment, or docility: he ſeems even to be ſubject to paroxyſms of fury, which nothing can mitigate; for one that Emanuel, king of Portugal, ſent to the pope in 1513, deſtroyed the veſſel in which it was tranſporting; and a rhinoceros, exhibited ſome years ago in Paris, was drowned in a ſimilar manner, while on the voyage to Italy.

' This huge beaſt is fond of wallowing in the mire like a hog, and teſtifies a marked predilection for moiſt, marſhy grounds, never quitting the banks of rivers. The ſpecies is not very numerous; but it is found both in Aſia and Africa. The female produces but one at a time, and that at conſiderable intervals. During the firſt month, the young rhinoceros is much about the ſize of a maſtiff.

' Deſtitute of every beneficial quality, the rhinoceros only con-

ſumes an immenſe quantity of proviſions while alive, and his fleſh is of no value when dead. His ſkin, indeed, forms the hardeſt and beſt leather in the world; and among the ignorant natives of the countries where he is found, almoſt every part of his body is reckoned an antidote againſt poiſon, or beneficial in ſome diſeaſes.

'Having no appetite for fleſh, but ſubſiſting on vegetables alone, he neither diſturbs the ſmall, nor dreads the largeſt animals. He is rather ſolitary than ſavage, and never attacks mankind unleſs in his own defence.

'The two-horned rhinoceros is a ſcarce animal; it is found only in Africa, and was a long time ſuppoſed to be a fabulous creature, till obſerved by Dr. Sparman, and deſcribed in his Travels at the Cape of Good Hope.' P. 152.

The reader of theſe extracts may perhaps think that the ſtyle of this work is artificial; that the inverſions ſometimes render it obſcure; and that ſome words, frequently repeated, as 'naſcency, immolated,' &c. are too diſtant from colloquial language to be eaſily underſtood by thoſe for whom the work is deſigned.

That the common hog is '*temerarious* and brutal, without intelligence, ſentiment, or docility,' is perhaps not true. Its raſhneſs is chiefly in defence of its young; and its apparent obſtinacy may be the reſult of its ſagacity and apprehenſion of danger. The hogs that range the foreſts of Germany obey the ſound of their keeper's horn, and, when they have been familiariſed, and taught by favour to place confidence, their attachments are ſtrong. With one other extract, and our good wiſhes for the author's ſucceſs, we ſhall conclude our account.

'THE HERRING.

'Herrings differ greatly in ſize, but their uſual length is from nine to twelve inches. The back and ſides are varied with green and blue, and the belly is ſilvery. The gill-covers are extremely looſe and patulous, which occaſions the immediate death of the fiſh when taken out of its native element; and hence the vulgar proverb, "As dead as a herring."

'This fiſh is found in the greateſt abundance through all the high northern latitudes. In thoſe unnavigable ſeas, which are covered with ice the greateſt part of the year, they find a quiet and ſecure retreat from all their numerous enemies. Inſect food, on which they ſubſiſt, is alſo extremely plentiful there: from which favourable circumſtances their increaſe is beyond conception. Hence they are obliged to migrate in queſt of new ſettlements. The great colony of herrings ſets out from the polar ſeas about the middle of winter; but ſoon ſeparates into two ſhoals, one body of which moves weſtward, and pours along the coaſts of America as far as Carolina; while the other directs its courſe to Europe, and

first appears off the Shetland islands in the month of April. From the Shetland islands this great army again divides, one squadron taking the western coasts of Britain towards Ireland, and another the eastern, towards the Land's-end. During their progress, they are pursued by millions of enemies of all descriptions; among others, by man; their approach being carefully watched by the fishermen, who catch them in numbers beyond calculation.

'Considered as an aliment, fresh herrings are not unwholesome; but, when cured, as myriads are annually, they indeed supply the poor with cheap food, but they are not considered as nutritive, or easy of digestion. The Dutch are most expert in pickling these fishes; but the British fisheries have of late years been well conducted, and meet with considerable national encouragement, as, indeed, they well deserve, both in an economical and political point of view.' P. 347.

Adelaide: a Tragedy, in Five Acts, as performing with universal Applause, at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By Henry James Pye, Poet Laureat. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1800.

MR. PYE has chosen an historical subject for his tragedy. The following passages in his preface, extracted from lord Lyttelton's History of Henry II. will assist our readers in the comprehension of the story.

" From Gervase of Canterbury we learn, that Philip demanded back his sister, who, having been many years accorded to Richard, was not yet married to him, but was kept like a captive, under strict custody, by king Henry in England.

" If Henry (as some modern historians have supposed) was afraid of contracting another alliance with the French royal family, from the experience he had of the bad effects of that which his eldest son had made, he should not have sworn to let this be accomplished, but should have restored the princess to her brother, whether he did, or did not, admit the pretensions of that king to Gisors. For he could have no right to detain her in his custody one single day, after he had resolved to break the match, on account of which she had been, so many years before, entrusted to his care. The desire he had shewn of marrying her to John, instead of Richard, had been dropt in the year eleven hundred and eighty-five, and could not now be resumed consistently with the oath taken by him in the year eleven hundred and eighty-six. Nor is it said by any one contemporary writer, that he made mention of it in the conferences now held with the king of France on this subject. It was, therefore, extremely difficult to justify or excuse his not doing one of these two things, either marrying Adelais, without delay, to Richard, or sending her back to her brother. When wise men act unwisely, the cause must be usually sought for in their passions,

I therefore cannot doubt, that the real motive of his otherwise unaccountable conduct was a passionate love for this princess. It has been mentioned before what reason there is to believe, that he had sought a divorce from Eleanor his wife, by the authority of Pope Alexander the Third, which would, if obtained, have enabled him to wed Adelais himself; but, even when this had been refused, he might flatter himself, that some of Alexander's successors would be more complaisant; or that Eleanor, who was old, might die before him, and leave him free to make this lady his queen. Love too easily hopes what it ardently wishes; and the supposing him under the tyranny of that passion, which is commonly attended with a greater degree of dotage in elderly men than in young, unravels the whole mystery of his present and subsequent proceedings. For it was natural, if he loved Adelais, that he should rather incline to risk a war (however dangerous it might be) than to think of parting with her, and delivering her to her brother, who might presently marry her to another prince." LYTTELTON, p. 345.

'To this passage there is a note in the appendix, vindicating Henry from the charge of having seduced Adelais.

"A contemporary writer says, that Philip in this conference reconciled Richard with Henry; but could not reconcile John, who was then making war, in another part of France, against his father. And almost all the historians of that age agree, that, after the taking of Mans, John did join in the league which Henry's enemies had concluded. This desertion must have been the sudden effect of some offers, made to him by his brother, in which he thought he should better find his account than in any benefits which his father, who was not likely to live long, could effectually bestow. And I think it more probable, that intelligence sent to Henry of his having taken arms against him in Normandy informed that king of his treason, than that he learnt it (as Hoveden says he did) by Philip's communicating to him a list of an association against him, at the head of which was prince John. In whatever manner he knew it, the knowledge proved fatal." P. iii.

LYTTELTON, B. V. p. 262.

It appears, therefore, that the chief personages of the drama are Henry the Second, one of our most illustrious kings, John, whose character has been so excellently dramatised by Shakspeare, and Richard Cœur-de-Lion, a name connected with all the splendor of heroism and romance. We proceed to analyse the play.

Act I. Clifford (the son of Henry and Rosamond) enters with prince John, and inquires why the nuptials of Richard and Adelaide are so long delayed. John replies, that the king is jealous of his sons, that he has engaged the pope's legate to prevent the marriage, by commanding Richard to depart for the Holy Land in pursuance of his vow, and that he has done this because he is enamoured of Adelaide. Clifford leaves the

prince, irritated at his obvious malice and by a perſonal inſult. In a ſhort ſoliloquy, John intimates his wiſh that Richard might be ſent to the Holy Land, where his frantic heroiſm would probably procure his deſtruction, in which caſe he himſelf would ſtand fair for England's throne. The king interrupts this ſoliloquy: John convinces him that it is the intention of Philip Auguſtus, the French king, as ſoon as the marriage is celebrated, to ſeiſe his perſon, and place Richard upon the throne; a conſpiracy to which Richard has conſented. This can only be defeated by a delay of the marriage, which muſt be done by engaging the legate to perſiſt in ordering the prince to depart for Paleſtine. Henry believes this, and goes to bribe the legate. Richard now enters, and John tells him that the legate will forbid his marriage at the inſtigation of his father, whoſe love for Adelaide is violent. Richard believes him, and vows that he will upbraid Adelaide with her inconſtancy, leave her for ever, take arms againſt his father, and join Philip.

' *P. Richard.* Am I permitted ere I go for ever,
And take a hated object from your ſight,
To ſpeak a few ſhort words?
' *Adelaide.* What mean thoſe accents,
Faltering and wild, thoſe looks of indignation?
What has diſturb'd you thus?—
' *P. Richard.* Perhaps you thought,
Becauſe my boſom is not prone to doubt,
And where I gave my heart, I alſo gave
My warmeſt confidence, it was impoſſible,
(Almoſt indeed it was) that glaring falſehood
Could alter my opinion; and you wonder
To find your arts could ever be unravell'd,
Or I could ſee when you deſired to blind me.
' *Adelaide.* Is this reproach to me?—Have I deſerv'd
This mean ſuſpicion?—On what bold pretence
Do you arraign my faith?—Some envious tongue
Has blaſted my fair fame?—But let the traitor—
' *P. Richard.* Madam, beware—For know, the indignation
That on the brow of ſlander'd innocence
Shows lovely, and is thron'd in dignity,
Speaks in the frown of guilt a harden'd mind,
That braves the ſenſe of ſhame.
' *Adelaide.* Sir, could I bear
This taunt of infamy with brow unruffled,
I ſhould by acquieſcence give a colour
To this unmanly ſtroke of coward malice.
But, by the voice of conſcious truth acquitted,
I ſcorn its efforts, and I court the conflict.
To the ſevereſt teſt, let malice bring

My every action—Point one guilty ſtain
To blot my ſpotleſs fame, my blameleſs faith
To vows, once breath'd to you, ere frantic paſſion
Thus taught diſtemper'd jealouſy to ſtart
At ſelf-created phantoms.
'*P. Richard.* This is all
Your ſex's art, ſcreening your own inconſtancy
Beneath a lover's weakneſs, and excuſing
Your own mean falſehood by the ſtorm of jealouſy
Excited by that falſehood. Think again—
Search well your inmoſt ſoul, and anſwer truly,
If I am not betray'd.
'*Adelaide.* No—on my honor—
Not even in thought by me.
'*P. Richard.* Falſe maid, beware—
Honor's a ſacred name, by which adjur'd
Even open guilt, that is not ſunk by meanneſs,
Debas'd, as well as profligate—will pauſe.—
'*Adelaide.* This is too much! Have I deſerv'd this uſage?
Knighthood ſhould bluſh, baſely to injure one
Without a friend to right her; left an hoſtage
Here among ſtrangers—yet I have a brother—
Ah no! raſh Philip is a rude aſſociate
Of your deſigns. I am alone—deſerted—
The mock of fortune.
'*P. Richard.* You the mock of fortune?
Is England's monarch then, is potent Henry
Become ſo low as not to have the power
To vindicate his miſtreſs? Does that wound you?
I ſee the conſcious guilt glow in your face—
Your bluſhes ſpeak your falſehood.
'*Adelaide.* Yes—the blood,
Rous'd by the ſenſe of virtuous indignation,
Mounts to my cheek, to hear the baſe aſperſion
By cruel malice fram'd. My Lord! My Lord!
There needed not this ſubtle veil of ſlander
To hide your wavering heart. O you were free
To follow your own will—you might have left me,
Have gone where proud ambition's gilded trophies,
Or newer charms, had lur'd you, and not form'd
This wretched ſcheme, improbable as falſe,
To ſtain my virgin fame. I was deceiv'd—
I thought that boſom, tho' the ſlave of paſſion,
Was more the ſlave of virtue, and could never
Harbour a thought that honor diſavow'd.
How has my heart been frozen oft by terror,
When I have pictur'd to myſelf the dangers
That might await your raſhneſs, and have ſeen you

In fancy's eye, borne from the fatal combat,
A bleeding corſe. What are my ſufferings now?
To view the idol of my adoration,
The image of all glory, all perfection,
Form'd by my partial love, defac'd, and mangled
By this injurious ſtroke of mean ſuſpicion—
O! 'tis too much—it rives my tortur'd ſoul.
[*Supports herſelf againſt the Scene.*

'*P. Richard.* What have I done! My raſh impetuous frenzy
O'erpowers her gentle frame—I cannot leave her
In this diſtreſs—humanity forbids it.
Look up, my Adelaide!

'*Adelaide.* That well known voice
Recalls my wandering ſenſes—But, alas!
Where are the gentle kindneſs, and affection,
That once attun'd each accent of that tongue?
You now are anxious to ſuppoſe me guilty,
And liſten to the moſt unlikely tale
That monſtrous calumny could e'er invent,
With credulous prejudice.

'*P. Richard.* Howe'er my ſoul
Started with horror at the direful thought
Of your inconſtancy, you cannot doubt
My earneſt wiſh to find you innocent.

'*Adelaide.* What can my innocence avail, if thus
Each groundleſs doubt enflames your jealouſy;
And every tale, that buſy ſcandal frames,
Condemns me in your eye, while accuſation
Alone is proof of crimes that trembling nature
Sickens to think of.

'*P. Richard.* O! my Adelaide,
Wound not my boſom farther—deign to clear
This myſtery of fate!—My ear ſhall drink
Each word with dumb attention; and my love
Shall turn the ſcale of juſtice on your ſide
With partial fondneſs.' P. 23.

Their reconciliation follows; and Adelaide, ſuſpicious of John, yet fearful that Henry may entertain a criminal affection for her, determines to withdraw from the court and take refuge in a convent. John enters to Richard, after Adelaide has left him; the legate arrives, and endeavours to drive Richard to the Holy Land by making him aſhamed of deferring his departure: in this, however, he fails.

Act 3. John informs Henry, that his brother has determined, if the legate will not abſolve him from his vow, to join his arms to thoſe of Philip.

' *Enter the* Legate *attended*, Prince Richard, *and* Clifford.

' *K. Henry.* Holy father,
With reverence that becomes the delegate
Of Rome's imperial pontiff, I receive
Your sacred mission, and with due obedience
Await his awful mandate.—Does he suffer
These long protracted nuptials to proceed?

' *Legate.* Your son to other duties is devoted—
The cause of heaven demands him. He is bound
By ties superior to all worldly claims—
The church expects him now to head her legions.

' *P. Richard.* Behold me ready to obey her summons!—
I only ask a transitory respite,
To solemnize my plighted faith to Adelaide.

' *Legate.* Altho' the church approves connubial rites—
Nay, sanctifies their forms, they must not clash
With her immediate interests.

' *P. Richard.* I am not
The slave of sensual appetite—these nuptials
Are on no private interest urged.—I own
The powerful charms of Adelaide—her beauty—
And yet superior virtues fire my soul.
I own myself her slave—yet fond affection
Is not the only or the strongest motive.—
Two rival nations look with anxious eyes
To see a union which, in common welfare,
Shall blend their jarring interests.

' *Legate.* What's the welfare,
The temporal interests of united Europe
To injur'd heaven?—Behold the sacred fields
By deluges of martyrs' blood ennobled,
Now desolate and waste, o'er-run by infidels,
Who spoil the temples and pollute the altars
Rear'd to a present Deity!—Behold
The outstretch'd arm of vengeance now prepar'd
To strike the blow vindictive!—Shall thy hand
Arrest the awful bolt?—My son, my son,
Let not delusive dreams of patriot zeal
Deceive your fancy; nor beneath the show
Of public virtue hide the selfish passions
Enflam'd by female art!

' *P. Richard.* Insulting priest,
I tell thee the pure flame that fires my breast,
By virtue fann'd, is what thy grosser sense
Feels not even in idea! [*To* King Henry] Sir, can you
Permit this sanction'd hypocrite to slander
The virtues of a princess you are bound
By duty and by honor to protect?

'*K. Henry.* You go too far by ſuch injurious words
To ſtain the reverend delegate of heaven.
Such inſults unaton'd may draw upon us,
And on our guiltleſs ſubjects, the diſpleaſure
Of Rome's thrice holy ſee.

'*P. Richard.* 'Twere well for Europe
Had ſhe never ſuffer'd Rome's preſumptuous prieſts
To interfere, or guide her various intereſts,
While on our eaſy faith ſhe builds her greatneſs,
And rears her empire on the neck of kings.—
But, Sir, I wiſh the holy pontiff joy
Of his new convert.—For the time has been
You were not quite ſo zealous in his ſervice;
And when you found the growing power of Rome
Croſs'd your deſigns, you mark'd your indignation
Even by her ſervant's blood—and Becket's murder
Stands in the ſacred legends of the church
A witneſs of your violence.—But when
The reverend ſquadrons combat on your ſide,
Tho' in a cauſe—

'*Legate.* Raſh youth, forbear—nor thus
Arraign the pious councils of the church,
On love and mercy founded, nor preſume
To execrate a crime that ſhe has pardon'd.—
Tho' dreadful was the deed, the guiltleſs blood
Of martyr'd Becket has been expiated
By ſolemn rites of penitence and prayer.

'*P. Richard.* By gold and by corruption, rather ſay;
For which you not alone ſanction the crimes
Of ſacrilege and murder; but your voice,
With proſtituted breath, abets the cauſe
Of future violence, and ſanctifies
Inceſt and perfidy!

'*Legate.* I'll hear no more
Of this rude profanation!—But, young man,
Mark what I ſay, and tremble.—In the name
Of Rome's high ſovereign pontiff, whoſe decrees
The Chriſtian world obeys—I will pronounce
Your nuptials void, if you preſume to celebrate
The interdicted rite, before your vow
To heaven is ſatisfied.

'*P. Richard.* Thou dar'ſt not do it!

'*Legate.* Not dare! Proud prince, that will be inſtant ſeen.
Within theſe walls I reign ſupreme. If once
I give the order, here ſhall Adelaide
Remain the altar's votary—from thy ſight
And hopes cut off for ever.' P. 38.

Richard leaves the assembly in anger; John follows him, and advises him to carry off Adelaide from the convent; observing, that, if she loves him, she will not refuse; and promising that he himself will endeavour to draw over Clifford's troops to his brother's cause.

Act 4. Adelaide refusing to accompany Richard, he expostulates with her on her perfidy, and leaves her. Her confidential friend has heard from John that the king is about to get a divorce from Eleanor, that he may marry her himself. Terrified at this, and irritated by the hasty jealousies of Richard, Adelaide goes to secure herself from the father, and punish the son, by taking the vows. John informs the king, that Richard has fled towards Paris, and that the Norman horse have revolted with him. He takes the royal signet to lead the English forces after them. Clifford now conjures Henry not to delay the marriage; and, when he learns what has passed with John, he hastens to remedy, if possible, the evil.

Act 5. Henry endeavours to persuade the legate to absolve Adelaide from her vows, but in vain. Clifford brings intelligence that John has revolted; and this breaks the king's heart: he falls into the arms of his attendants. Richard and John appear in arms before the convent: there Adelaide is seen in the dress of a nun; and the corpse of Henry is brought in. Thus punished for his rashness, Richard reproaches his brother, and determines to go to the holy war.

Such is the substance of this tragedy. We find nothing worthy of praise either in the plan or in the execution.

Some Account of the Shrewsbury House of Industry. Its Establishment, Regulations, and Bye-Laws: with Hints to those who may have similar Institutions in View. Fifth Edition. To which is now added, a large Introduction, containing general Observations on the present State of the Poor, and the defective System of the Poor's Laws. By I. Wood. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Longman *and* Rees. 1800.

A TREATISE on this subject, which, when judiciously conducted, must at all times be of importance to civil society, is at the present moment entitled to much additional attention, from the two-fold consideration of the high price of provisions, and the deduction sustained in our incomes from the demands of protracted warfare. Much of the volume, however, has already excited our notice in the course of the former editions through which the work has deservedly passed; and it can only be expected at present that we should give a brief account of the *observations* which, we are happy to see, the demand of a new impression enables the ingenious author to communi-

cate to the public 'on the present state of the poor, and the defective system of the poor's laws.'

'There have not been wanting writers, however, who have boldly defended the present system, denied the existence of those evils and defects of which it has been accused, and set their faces as a flint against all reform. Their arguments have indeed been confuted from the highest authorities, and by the most conclusive reasonings; but as these are only to be met with either buried in bulky volumes, or scattered through a great variety of smaller publications, it may be of considerable use to collect together, and place in one point of view, the most weighty and important of those arguments and authorities to which I refer. When these divided rays are thus converged, and brought to unite in one common focus, their combined force will be found to be irresistable.' P. x.

He proceeds to make judicious extracts from writers of the first reputation on parochial œconomics, viz. Bacon, Hale, Locke, Child, Cary, Defoe, Fielding, Alcock, Townsend, Eden, Ruggles, Good, Saunders, and Pitt; and he concludes, that, from 'the combined sentiments of so many great men and distinguished writers on the subject, there do exist some radical defects in the present parochial system.' What those defects are, he continues,

'may likewise be pretty clearly deduced from the foregoing quotations; namely, the indiscriminate provision made for all the parochial poor; the vesting annual overseers with full powers to administer that provision, confiding to men so appointed the whole management of the parochial fund, and neglecting to furnish employment for the poor.' P. xix.

Our author afterwards investigates the chief objections which have been urged against houses of industry by those who have preferred the system of relieving dependent paupers in their own habitations; viz. that, by not proportioning the scale of the building to the number of its inhabitants, and by crowding them into small, close, and dirty apartments, a house of industry is too often rendered a miserable hospital of wretchedness and disease; that it is nothing better than a legalised prison, in which the miserable crowds which inhabit it become the slaves of task-masters and superintendants; that, if respectable and well-informed gentlemen should consent to undertake gratuitously the office of directors, they would soon grow weary of the disagreeable task; that unlettered and inferior persons would in consequence creep into the direction, who, from defect of judgement, or want of principle, might fatally derange the establishment; whence, instead of relieving the industrious part of the community, or abating parochial burthens, such a system must eventually tend to injure the

one, and augment the other; and that establishments of this kind are not found, upon actual experiment, to produce the good purposes which were confidently expected from them on their first projection.

Mr. Wood's replies to the most important of these objections are, we think, altogether unanswerable. The edifice may be so constructed, undoubtedly, as to prevent the generation of misery and disease; the conduct evinced may be so politic and benevolent as to deduct, in a considerable degree, from the ideas of confinement and slavish subordination; and the plans proposed by him on these points are highly laudable and pertinent. In all populous and manufacturing towns, we agree with Mr. Wood, most decisively, that such institutions for associating dependent paupers are far preferable to the system that would relieve them in their own habitations: but, in small towns and villages, establishments of this description must be productive of unnecessary expense, and unduly curtail the personal liberty of those who are compelled to apply for parochial assistance. Yet, even where houses of industry are instituted, the labour introduced should be as simple as possible; and regular and uniform employment, such as may engender a habit of industry alone, should much rather be the object in view, than complex and speculative schemes of parochial advantage and emolument. On this account we cannot but strongly object to the system adopted at Shrewsbury, plausible as it appears at first sight, and warmly and repeatedly as it has been recommended by the different publications of the benevolent writer whose work is now before us. It is too multiform and elaborate, and demands a greater degree of attention from the directors than it can reasonably be expected that they will permanently bestow, immersed as the generality of them must necessarily be in their own concerns. And when once such indispensable attention is relaxed, idleness or fraud will too often be discoverable in the inferior officers upon whom the superintendance of the different manufactures must devolve; and the parish, instead of being benefited, will incur an additional burthen. We are not now speaking hypothetically, or offering an individual opinion. It was some time since predicted by Mr. Good, that such a deleterious change must necessarily occur in this very institution at Shrewsbury, from the complexity of the occupations introduced *; and we are truly grieved to find, from the appendix to the present work, that this prediction has been already fulfilled. It long flourished in such a manner as to satisfy the most sanguine hopes of its projectors, and became a model for many other institutions of a similar nature. But from progressive inattention on the part

* Dissertation on the best Means of employing the Poor, &c. p. 123.

of the directors, and a blind and implicit confidence reposed in one of the principal domestic officers, the most pernicious consequences have ensued, and the hopes of its earlier patrons have been completely frustrated.

'A minute and careful investigation having taken place with respect to the internal concerns of the house, it appeared, that in the manufactory, the raw material was committed to the care of individual paupers, some of them not very properly selected for that purpose; and that there was a general want of those check-books, or daily entries, necessary to ascertain the waste and loss of the raw material in passing through the various processes, or to detect any embezzlement or fraud. In one department, where such a check account was kept, for the purpose of ascertaining gratuities, for want of previous and subsequent counter-entries, it was in the power of the woman employed to set down at random what quantities she pleased, without detection; and she regularly for weeks together set down two hundred and forty pounds of wool per week, as having passed through the machines, when it clearly appeared, from particular enquiry, that not half that quantity was, during those weeks, delivered out for working.' P. 103.

'The gratuities to the paupers employed were allowed in proportion to the quantity of work done by weight or measure; the consequence of which was, that they hurried over their work in a very imperfect manner, for the purpose of enlarging their gratuities. They have now a given quantity of the raw material to work upon, and are ordered not to be allowed their gratuity, unless it is executed in a workmanlike manner.

'In the provision-stores, the waste and abuse were found to be very considerable indeed. In these departments, as well as in the manufactory, the poor employed in baking, cooking, &c. had access to the stores, and helped themselves.' P. 105.

We rejoice, however, to find that a thorough reform has commenced in this excellent establishment, and that a variety of new regulations have been adopted, with a view of preventing the recurrence of a similar evil. The majority of these regulations we highly approve: they will at least retard the re-appearance of indolence and domestic fraud; but we still apprehend, from the very nature and complexity of the system itself, that the mischiefs so lately felt will be occasionally reproduced, and call for additional reformation.

In the present impression of Mr. Wood's pamphlet he has omitted, and we think with propriety, the correspondence which was before introduced, as having occurred between himself and the reverend Mr. Howlett of Dunmow. It was marked with a degree of asperity, on the part of the former, which we lamented at the time of perusing it; and we are

pleased with the suppression of it. It should be stated, however, that Mr. Howlett and Mr. Good were apparently justified in questioning the accuracy of the register of births and deaths (as at the time of Mr. Wood's first edition) kept in the Shrewsbury House, and the consequent deduction of our author from such imperfect data. 'Upon acting again in the direction (observes Mr. Wood), I found reason to apprehend, *from omissions in other parts of this record*, that the register had not been accurately kept; and upon the change of our house-steward I caused a fresh book to be opened.' P. 38. From the range of this new register-book, which includes only a twelvemonth at present, viz. from December, 1798, to Dec. 1799, the comparative mortality of infants at the Shrewsbury poor-house, with those of similar institutions, does not materially vary.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

Short Strictures on a brief Examination into the Increase of the Revenue, Commerce, and Manufactures, of Great Britain, from 1792 *to* 1799. *Lately published by George Rose, Esq. By a Merchant.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Jordan. 1800.

THESE strictures are short and dear: the writer can afford only twenty-three pages for one shilling. Some of the remarks, however, deserve attention. According to Mr. Rose, the sum of the exports and imports in 1788 was 36,151,000*l.* and in 1798 their sum amounted to 94,963,000*l.* Such a difference might naturally excite surprise; and very extraordinary conclusions might be drawn by those who are unacquainted with the use made of figures by politicians. But our merchant was not so easily deceived: he saw clearly that there was a fallacy in some part of the account; and, as the above statement was to demonstrate the increasing prosperity of the country, he naturally enquires whether the customs have been augmented in the same proportion of 36 to 94; and, instead of this proportion, he finds that they have increased only in the proportion of 37 to 39. For such an inconsistency in his own statement, Mr. Rose is very fairly called upon to give an account to the public. In treating of the affairs of the bank, also, Mr. Rose gives it a clear surplus of property of 15,137,690*l.*; but, says the merchant, if the capital 11,642,400*l.* be taken at 156 *per cent.* what is the

clear surplus? There is so much deception in figures, that we are indebted to every one who will apply his thoughts to this subject; and the merchant may be of great use if he will continue his remarks on the accounts given by public men, as far as they relate to points which are within his own sphere.

Resolutions of the Society of the Friends of the Republican Constitution at L—— against the Constitution of the Year 8 of the French Republic. Addressed to all good Citizens. Sitting of the 15th Nivose, Year 8 (5th January, 1800, Old Style). 8vo. 6d. Low. 1800.

It might be expected that these resolutions would be condemned by the present French government. Buonaparte is considered as an usurper, his constitution as derogatory to the rights of French citizens, his government as degrading to a nation which now bends under the yoke of a foreigner, and allows him a power superior to that of its own natural princes. It was resolved that he should be tried for high treason, that primary assemblies should be convoked, and that a constitution should be framed by the representatives of the people. Such resolutions are very easily made in an arm-chair.

Observations upon the Introduction to the Third Part of the Copies of Original Letters from the French Army in Egypt. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1800.

The trash obtruded on the public in the preface and notes to the intercepted letters, is now so generally reprobated by all parties, that these observations are almost superfluous. They place in a proper point of view the ridiculous bombast and gross absurdity of the writer of the preface, and mark with due reprobation the disregard to truth in the translator in two instances, in which it was evidently his intention to deceive the public.

Correspondence between M. Bertrand de Moleville and the Honourable Charles James Fox, upon his Quotation on the Annals of the French Revolution, in the Debate in the House of Commons on the 3d of February, 1800. *With a Translation, by* R. C. Dallas, *Esq.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hookham. 1800.

Mr. Fox having asserted in the house of commons, that Louis XVI. had entered into negotiations with foreign powers, to compel France by force of arms to a renunciation of that system which she deemed necessary to her happiness, or to dictate by force of arms changes in her internal government, and having referred to M. Bertrand's Annals for a verification of the circumstance, the French writer denied, in a letter addressed to Mr. Fox, that any passage in his work justified such an allegation, and affirmed that he had spoken of a *feigned coalition*, and of *declaring*, not *making*, war against France. Mr. Fox, in his answer, maintained the propriety of his remark, and plausibly contended that even the scheme

which M. Bertrand admitted to have been formed, justified the French in their war with the Austrians. Other letters passed between these politicians, without a satisfactory determination of the dispute.

A Supplement to the Annals of the French Revolution, lately published by A. F. Bertrand de Moleville; or, Observations upon the Critical Remarks of M. Mallet Du Pan, in his Review of that Work, inserted in the Thirty-third Number of the British Mercury. By the Author of the Annals. 8vo. 6d. Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

This supplement does not require any other remark than that some of the points mentioned in it are well argued, while others are weakly defended.

A Letter to an Officer on the Madras Establishment: being an Attempt to illustrate some particular Institutions of the Maratta People; principally relative to their System of War and Finance. Also an Account of the Political Changes of the Empire in the Year 1796, *as published in the Bombay Courier. By William Henry Tone, commanding a Regiment of Infantry in the Service of the Paishwa.* 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1799.

This is a well-written and sensible pamphlet, and appears to us to contain some very important remarks, and some useful information. It is our wish that the author may favour the public with further observations on the state and establishments of this country; and his readers, we think, will derive both pleasure and instruction from his labours.

Thoughts on the late Overtures of the French Government to this Country, in a Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt, written previous to the Recommencement of Hostilities in the Spring of the Year 1800. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

This 'plain man, far retired from the busy theatre of the world, humble in his occupation, and humbler still in his own opinion,' talks of liberty 'as the birth-right of an Englishman, which has remained uncontaminated through ages past to the present hour.' We should be much obliged to this plain man if he would inform us what this liberty is; for, on contemplating the religious revolutions in the times of Henry the Eighth, queen Mary, and queen Elizabeth, and the political revolutions in the times of Charles the First, Cromwell, Charles the Second, and James the Second, we are at a loss to point out any species of liberty which has not been contaminated within the last three hundred years. With regard to the revenue of this country, we do not understand how it can be said to be undiminished when so great a progress has been made in the sale of the land-tax, the ancient constitutional tax of the kingdom, and on which really depends its defence, and when a tenth of the property of the soil, and of every man's labour, is very nearly

morfgaged. There is no need of fuch exaggerations; and wife men, friendly in general to the meafures of adminiftration, would have rejoiced if the overtures of France had not been rejected with fuch precipitation. The prefent writer thinks otherwife; but his thoughts add nothing to the current opinion upon this fubject.

The French Expedition into Syria, comprifing General Buonaparte's Letters, with General Berthier's Narrative, and Sir Wm. Sidney Smith's Letters from the London Gazette. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. 1799.

The accounts concerning the French expedition have been fo contradictory, that fuch a collection as the prefent cannot fail to gratify thofe who have followed the reports of the events in Egypt and Syria with any anxiety. Little doubt can be entertained of the authenticity and accuracy of Berthier's narration, which is the moft important article in this collection; and we muft fay that it is remarkably curious and interefting. Whatever opinions may be formed of Buonaparte as a man, there can be but one fentiment of him as a general; and this narration, we think, will add to his military reputation. We hope that the failure of the French expedition will only lead the way to a fimilar adventure from this country; for the civilifation of Egypt and Syria appears to us fo important a confideration for the benefit of the human race, that we are anxious that fome enlightened nation fhould carry it into execution, and deliver the wretched inhabitants of thofe delightful regions from a bondage which knows no parallel in the hiftory of mankind.

RELIGION.

Two Sermons preached before his Majefty at the Chapel Royal at St. James's during Lent. By Brownlow, Bifhop of Winchefter. 4to. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1799.

Thefe fermons are dedicated to the king. 'Under your majefty's gracious permiffion,' fays the right reverend author, 'moft gladly availing myfelf of your majefty's auguft name, I have in all humility infcribed thefe difcourfes to your majefty.' From the firft difcourfe, to which the text affixed is, 'The fool hath faid in his heart there is no God,' we learn that civil government and religious eftablifhments are of divine authority, and hence that the character in the text hath never been a national character in any place, but that 'fuch fools have been fingle and individual every where, and their folly in all places equally confpicuous and equally odious.' This difcourfe concludes with a contraft between the nations of France and Great Britain, in the latter of which 'we may contemplate that ftate of fociety, the moft perfect which the mind of man can imagine, in which public profperity, private fecurity, honor, freedom and happinefs, abound.'

In the second discourse the same subject is pursued from this text — 'Doubtless there is a God who judgeth the earth;' whence the preacher takes occasion to reprobate French atheism, and to extol 'the purity of religion and faith, the just sense of morals, the peace, comfort, and rational enjoyment both in spirituals and temporals, which become the dignity, and adorn the character, of the religious well-ordered people' in this happy island. Both texts appear to us capable of exciting the most animated sentiments on the nature of God's government, and the folly of disputing or denying it; and the sacred history affords innumerable examples to establish the general propriety of the preacher's doctrine; but, when he alludes so pointedly to facts of a recent date, when he raises our indignation against our enemies, and flatters so strongly our own self-love, an audience is in danger of dwelling upon the political topics of the day, and forgetting the great truths which the worthy prelate intended to inculcate.

Serious and candid Observations on that Part of the Bishop of Lincoln's Work, entitled Elements of Christian Theology, which contains his Lordship's Exposition of the Seventeenth Article of the Church of England. To which is annexed, Bishop Beveridge's Exposition of the same Article. In a Letter from an Old Christian in the Country, to his Friend in London. 8vo. 1s. Row. 1800.

We have heard of the address from the old whigs to the new, from which the writer of this pamphlet may have borrowed his title of the Old Christian, as the subject discussed by him is the question now much agitated respecting the seventeenth article of the church. The bishop of Lincoln vindicates the new doctrine attributed to that article: the old Christian maintains the opinion of Calvin, which, indeed, was the doctrine of the early fathers of the church, and was generally maintained till the time of bishop Burnet by the members of the church of England. Archbishop Whitgift, bishop Beveridge, Dr. Fletcher, bishop of London, and Dr. Hutton, archbishop of York, were strenuous in support of the old opinion: Burnet, Hoadly, Pyle, Clarke, the Arminians and Socinians, oppose it. The bishop of Lincoln gives his reason for rejecting the old doctrine. 'For we cannot conceive that a being of infinite justice and mercy would arbitrarily select out of his rational creatures a determinative number, on whom he would bestow the blessing of eternal happiness, while he consigned all the rest to eternal punishment, or passed them over as unworthy [*of*] his regard and attention. Such an idea of election ought surely to be rejected.' But this mode of arguing seems inadmissible. We are, it is said, to judge of the conduct of God by our finite conceptions; we are to make our reason the standard of faith. Beveridge, whose exposition of the article is given in this work, justly reprobates such a proceeding. 'Though in the other articles (he says) we may make

uſe of reaſon as well as ſcripture, yet in this we muſt make uſe of ſcriptures and fathers only, and not of reaſon: for it concerns God's predeſtination, which muſt be infinitely above man's apprehenſion; ſo that a cockle-fiſh may as ſoon croud the ocean into its narrow cell, as vain man ever comprehend the decrees of God.' There are two queſtions then dependent upon this article. Firſt, is the interpretation of the article, given by the biſhop of Lincoln, agreeable to the literal grammatical ſenſe? Secondly, is the article itſelf conſiſtent with ſcripture? The writer of this work anſwers the firſt queſtion in the negative, the ſecond in the affirmative; and he maintains his opinions with piety, candour, ſound judgement, and ſcriptural authorities.

A Sermon, preached, by particular Deſire, in the Pariſh Church of Willand, Devon, on Thurſday, the 7th Day of February, 1799, *at the Interment of John Weſtcott, Yeoman, who died of a melancholy Accident, in the Prime of Life. By the Rev. Jonas Dennis, S. C. L. &c. 4to.* 1*s.* Rivingtons.

By what melancholy accident the perſon, whoſe death gave occaſion to the reflections contained in this ſermon, was removed from this world, is not mentioned, nor is it material for the public to know. It is ſufficient to obſerve that the preacher has made a ſuitable religious improvement of the event, in a pious and animated addreſs to ſurvivors. The doctrines inculcated in this diſcourſe are thoſe which are uſually deemed orthodox. The preacher dwells upon the points of original ſin and divine influence. His ſtyle is not deſpicable; nor is the peroration deſtitute of ſpirit; and it is not the leaſt inducement which we feel to recommend this diſcourſe to our readers, that, as Mr. Dennis informs us, 'the profits of this publication will be applied to the relief of the widow and eight orphans of the deceaſed.'

A Sermon, preached in the Pariſh Church of Brading, in the Iſle of Wight, on February 27, 1799, *being the Day appointed for a General Faſt. By the Rev. Legh Richmond, M. A. &c. 8vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons.

This faſt-day ſermon, in addition to the many others which have been preached on like occaſions, ſhows the laudable eagerneſs of the preacher to call the attention of his flock to ſubjects which are not only important to individuals, but alſo to the nation. The diſcourſe is plain, pious, and practical; and though it has little to diſtinguiſh it from a number of others which have iſſued from the preſs, yet we would not, on that account, with-hold from it the praiſe of exhibiting a faithful picture of the times, and forcibly recommending that religious principle and perſonal reformation, without which all other exertions will prove a weak defence in the time of calamity.

A Sermon preached in Lambeth Chapel, at the Consecration of the Right Reverend John Randolph, D. D. Lord Bishop of Oxford, on Sunday, Sept. 1, 1799. By the Rev. Thomas Lambard, M. A. &c. Published by Command of his Grace the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

There are many just remarks in this discourse. The advantages of political and civil union, and the evils of loosening the bonds by which societies are knit together, are well discussed by Mr. Lambard. It is a sermon well adapted to the occasion, and to the subject, which is taken from Eph. iv. 3. 'Endeavouring to keep the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace.'

A Refutation of some of the more modern Misrepresentations of the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers; with a Life of James Nayler; by Joseph Gurney Bevan: also (by Permission of the Meeting for Sufferings) a Summary of the History, Doctrine, and Discipline of Friends. 8vo. 2s. W. Phillips. 1800.

The doctrine and discipline of the friends have been greatly misrepresented by Mosheim, Hume, John Wesley, and one of of the writers in the Encyclopædia Britannica; but these misrepresentations have had little effect upon the country at large, and no sect can boast of such general estimation as the quakers. The excellence of their conduct makes sufficient amends for the singularity of their outward appearance; and it was scarcely necessary to revive and refute the objections which at various times have been brought forward against their body. The name of James Nayler is almost buried in oblivion; and the recital of the horrid punishment which he received from the decree of a fanatical and puritanical parliament, excites our indignation at the foolish prejudices and persecuting spirit of the seventeenth century, while every one is inclined to cast a veil over the faults of the poor sufferer, and no one can be found to impute his errors to the body of which he was once a member. The summary of the doctrine and discipline of the friends is well drawn up, and a good account is given of a sect which has many excellent qualities, but which, from various causes, seems to be now approaching to its decline. We hope that there is too much good sense in the nation to permit another persecution of this sect; and, if its tenets are growing daily into less repute, we see no reason to admire the change of habit in the seceders from so well-regulated a community.

A few Observations on the Expedience of Parliamentary Interposition, duly to explain the Act of William and Mary, commonly called 'The Tolerating Act.' By the Rev. Edward Barry, M. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. Pridden. 1800.

The nature of toleration and the inefficacy of religious persecution are in general better understood at present than they were at the

close of the seventeenth century; yet there are persons so injudicious as to expect to give additional strength to the church by applying civil restraints to those who are not within its pale. They are led into this pernicious error by not attending to the history of dissent from the establishment. At the termination of the seventeenth century, the body of the dissenters agreed firmly with the church in its doctrines, but differed on the subject of discipline. From the time that bishop Burnet published his interpretation of the articles, a laxity crept into the church with respect to its doctrines; and the writings of Dr. Samuel Clarke greatly encouraged that latitude of judgement. From the strange mode of subscription allowed by Paley, Hey, and others, a kind of schism has now taken place among the clergy of the establishment, some adhering closely to the doctrinal articles, but loosely understanding those which relate to discipline, and assuming to themselves the appellation of the evangelical clergy, while others adhere to the discipline of the church, but interpret the doctrinal articles in such various ways as seem most agreeable to their views of Scripture, or consider them merely as articles of peace. The lower classes adhere very much to the evangelical clergy; and if in any parish one of this description is succeeded by one of the contrary description, a secession frequently takes place from the church; and, from the want of a proper clergyman of the church, one of the seceders, perhaps not very well qualified for such a duty, occupies his place. Under the present system such meetings are licensed; and in our opinion it is proper that they should be so. Our author requests the interference of the legislature, which we deprecate on this occasion, as the church has full power over its ministers.

LAW.

A Treatise of the Law of Awards. The second Edition, revised and corrected; with very considerable Additions from printed and manuscript Cases: and an Appendix, containing a Variety of useful Precedents. By Stewart Kyd, Esq. Barrister at Law, of the Middle Temple. 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

The utility of a practical and concise statement of the law of awards is obvious; but we do not think Mr. Kyd's book calculated to answer the general purpose of a treatise on a subject so connected with the concerns of the mercantile world. The first edition of this treatise was enlarged by unnecessary copiousness of discussion, and frequency of quotation from the compilations of the civil law. The present publication is more than twice the bulk of the former; and we do not perceive the necessity for the precedents of declarations and bills in law and equity, which constitute the chief part of the Appendix. The practising gentlemen of the profession will consider them as superfluous; and to the public they are doubtless unintelligible.

An *addendum* to this edition ſtates an important circumſtance in the conſtruction of awards: we extract it for the information of arbitrators.

'In page 139 it is ſtated that the court of King's Bench had lately decided that an award under ſeal muſt be on a deed ſtamp, the ſealing conſtituting it a deed. This caſe was cited before Buller J. at the ſittings in laſt Trinity term in the Common Pleas, at Weſtminſter, and ſomething ſaid about the *delivery* of an award *under ſeal* conſtituting it a deed.—That judge ſaid he ſhould pay no attention to that deciſion in the place where he then ſat, and that by the delivery muſt be underſtood that the arbitrator delivered the inſtrument as his *award*, not as his *deed*.

'I have ſince been favoured with the following note by Mr. Serjeant Bailey:—

"WILSON *v.* SMEE.

"In Hilary term 1798 I moved for an attachment for non-performance of an award; Onſlow ſhewed for cauſe that the award was under ſeal, that the atteſtation purported that it had been ſealed and delivered, and that it ought to have had a deed ſtamp: the caſe ſtood over for the conſideration of the court till Eaſter term; and then I produced an affidavit that the arbitrators, at the time they executed their award, uſed the words 'that they publiſhed it as their award,' and that they did not deliver it as their act and deed; and on this affidavit the court thought the ſtamp proper, and made the rule abſolute."

'In Styles 459, Dod *v.* Herbert, Glyn J. C. ſays, "an arbitrament under ſeal is no deed, and the arbitrament may be made without a deed, and therefore it is not neceſſary to be produced in court, for it is but a writing under hand and ſeal;" and in Perry *v.* Nicholſon, 1 Bur. 278. Deniſon J. page 281, ſays, "It has been ſettled that in actions upon awards (which are no *ſpecialties*) there is no occaſion to ſet forth the *whole* award, &c." P. vii.

Practical Forms: being chiefly deſigned as an Appendix to the Practice of the Court of King's Bench in Perſonal Actions. By William Tidd, Eſq. of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 10s. 6d. *Boards.* Butterworth. 1799.

Mr. Tidd's correct and intelligent arrangement of the practice of the court of King's Bench, in perſonal actions, has doubtleſs obtained conſiderable profeſſional eſtimation. A ſecond edition of that uſeful work was noticed in our XXVIIth Vol. New Arr. (p. 345); and the practical forms contained in the preſent volume are well adapted from their accuracy, and the frequent neceſſity of their uſe, to the compiler's intention of rendering the collection an appendix to his former publication. He has introduced theſe precedents of forms by a ſhort preface, explanatory of their nature, and the judicial purpoſes to which they are applicable.

The Law of Executors and Adminiſtrators; by Samuel Toller, Eſq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barriſter at Law. 8vo. 8s. *Boards.* Butterworth. 1800.

The writer to whom we are indebted for this new diſplay and illuſtration of an uſeful branch of the law, alleges, as the motive of his attempt, the non-exiſtence of any modern work of reputation treating excluſively of the duties of perſonal repreſentatives. The manner in which he has ſupplied this deficiency reflects credit on his profeſſional judgement and induſtry. The volume contains all the requiſite information upon the ſubject; the caſes are accurately ſtated; the arrangement excels that of former works of the kind; and the author has treated more copiouſly of the law of adminiſtrators than any of his predeceſſors. But we lament the neceſſity of adding, that the work is not calculated for the public in general, having all the technical formality of publications in the law, without that eaſe of ſtyle or readineſs of explanation which would adapt it to common readers. To the ſtudents and profeſſors of the law, however, we recommend it with pleaſure.

MEDICINE, &c.

A ſhort Introduction to the Knowledge of Gaſeous Bodies. By Dr. A. N. Scherer, Profeſſor of Chemiſtry, &c. Tranſlated from the German. 8vo. 3s. Myers.

M. Scherer was ordered, by the duke of Saxe-Weimar, to give a public courſe of lectures, in order to diffuſe the knowledge, and aſſiſt the progreſs, of chemiſtry. The great influence of the different gaſes on various manufactures induced him to prefer this part of the ſcience as his principal ſubject; and he has here given the ſubſtance of his courſe. As he is a chemiſt of no mean fame, this publication will attract many readers, who, we think, will not be diſappointed in their hopes of inſtruction. We meet with ſome peculiar opinions, but we ought not to object to them without hearing the author's arguments, which in a ſyllabus cannot be expected. On the whole, this introduction merits our praiſe.

A Letter to Mr. Ogden, Surgeon, in Aſhton-under-Line, pointing out ſome of the Miſrepreſentations of himſelf and his Coadjutor, Mr. Simmons, relative to the Caſe of Elizabeth Thompſon, upon whom the Ceſarean Operation was lately performed, in the Lying-in Hoſpital of this Town, and containing ſome Remarks upon their Conduct in this Caſe. By G. Tomlinſon. 8vo. 1s. Clarke, Mancheſter.

In our laſt volume (p. 404) we gave ſome account of this controverſy, and lamented, that profeſſional differences of opinion ſhould have been proſecuted with ſo much perſonal virulence. The flame has now ſpread farther; but we ſhall only conſider the ſubject in a profeſſional view.

If there ever was a caſe in which the Cæſarean operation appeared to be adviſable, it was this; for no other method was admiſſible to preſerve either the parent or child: both muſt have periſhed, and this was fully aſcertained before the operation. The attempt therefore was highly proper. But, whatever was the event, the time loſt in the conveyance muſt have been more than compenſated by the accommodations of an hoſpital, and by the ſkill and attention of its ſurgeons; nor, from the time of delay neceſſary for the removal, was there any reaſon to expect danger. It is evident that the ſurgeons of the hoſpital did not think ſo, as they continued to delay the operation for the advantage of one other opinion. The only additional obſervation of importance in a medical view, is that which clears the little inconſiſtency remarked in our former article. Mr. Wood now declares, that 'there were no appearances, which he will *take upon him to ſay* were *unequivocally* inflammatory;' yet the ſymptoms were thoſe of inflammation, not inflammation of the uterus, for they occurred many hours ſubſequent to delivery; and, if produced by the conveyance, they muſt have been noticed at leaſt eighteen hours before. Whatever injury may have been done to the cervix uteri by the conveyance, or by the action of the uterus itſelf, however fatal the gangrene may have been, neither perhaps occaſioned the ſymptoms related, which are truly thoſe of the inflammatory irritation of the inteſtines.

The Villager's Friend and Phyſician; or, a familiar Addreſs on the Preſervation of Health, and the Removal of Diſeaſe on its firſt Appearance; ſuppoſed to be delivered by a Village Apothecary. With curſory Obſervations on the Treatment of Children, on Sobriety, Induſtry, &c. Intended for the Promotion of Domeſtic Happineſs. By James Parkinſon. 12mo. 1s. Symonds. 1800.

'This little ſeries of admonitions, ſuppoſed to be delivered by a village apothecary to his neighbours, is a proper ſupplement to the author's Medical Admonitions. The ſame judgement in the advice, and the ſame perſpicuity in the directions, which we had occaſion to praiſe in the former work, appear in the preſent. We cannot wiſh the author a better reward than the conſciouſneſs of having done much ſervice to mankind.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Propoſals for a Rural Inſtitute, or College of Agriculture and the other Branches of Rural Economy. By Mr. Marſhall. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nicol. 1799.

Our author has mentioned this plan in ſeveral of his works. He now gives it to the public in its more matured form; and its utility will not be doubted. It unites theory with experiment, and will contribute to the general diſſemination of agricultural ſcience. The minute details, which are properly explained, may perhaps admit

ſome improvement; but the general plan merits great praiſe and warm encouragement.

The Profitable Planter. A Treatiſe on the Cultivation of Larch and Scotch Fir Timber: ſhowing that their excellent Quality (eſpecially that of the former) will render them ſo extenſively uſeful, as greatly to promote the Intereſts of the Country. With Directions for Planting, in various Soils and Situations, by a new and expeditious Method; alſo, for the Management of Plantations. To which are added, uſeful Hints, in regard to Shelter and Ornament. By W. Pontey, Nurſeryman and Planter. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*. Vernor *and* Hood.

The directions for the management of plantations diſplay great judgement, and are, apparently, the production of extenſive experience; while the arrangements of thoſe ornamental additions to a houſe, in a picturesque view, merit the attention of the builder. The author's great objects are to ſhow, that the Engliſh firs, in ſuitable ſoils, with proper management, are as uſeful as thoſe of Norway, and will produce timber of very conſiderable ſcantlings; and alſo that the larch is highly valuable as a timber tree, adapted not only to uſeful but ornamental purpoſes. The ſpecimen of larch timber, tranſmitted with the work, is indeed beautiful, and it ſeems to poſſeſs the ſmoothneſs and toughneſs of beech, with a better hue and more varied veins: yet, from the oblique direction of theſe, we fear that the wood may be occaſionally *ſhaky*; for the ſame reaſon we may queſtion its durability, as it will probably, on drying, ſplit in theſe directions. Experience, however, muſt decide.

The Britiſh Garden; a deſcriptive Catalogue of hardy Plants, indigenous or cultivated in the Climate of Great Britain, with their generic and ſpecific Characters, Latin and Engliſh Names, native Country, &c. 2 Vols. 8*vo*. 9*s*. *Boards*. Cadell *and* Davies.

The work of the late reſpectable Mr. Aiton, the Hortus Kewenſis, publiſhed in 1789, received its tribute of praiſe in our 69th volume (p. 261). 'The Britiſh Garden' is a tranſlation of it, with ſhort explanations of the Linnæan ſyſtem prefixed. Accuracy can of courſe be its only recommendation; and this character it ſeems to poſſeſs.

Elements of Botany, illuſtrated by Sixteen Engravings. By John Hull, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons, &c. 2 *Vols. Small* 8*vo*. 18*s*. Bickerſtaff. 1800.

Elements of botany have been uſually confined to a tranſlation of the Philoſophia Botanica, or to general directions for the ſtudy of the ſcience. The latter, however, cannot give that accurate knowledge which alone conſtitutes a botaniſt; and the former is, from various cauſes, an incomplete guide. In the claſs cryptogamia, for inſtance,

ſeveral diſcoveries have augmented our ſtock; and thoſe of Hedwig, reſpecting the fructification of moſſes, and the arrangements of Perſoon, in another order, have greatly enlarged our ideas, as well as added to the number of terms. While Linnæus alſo arranged plants from the fructification, he was leſs attentive to the ſeeds; and Gærtner, who employed theſe organs as the baſis of his ſyſtem, has introduced many new appellations. All theſe novelties, or improvements, are properly introduced by Mr. Hull. The genera of plants in the ſecond volume are numbered from the fifth edition, publiſhed at Stockholm, and Murray's fourteenth edition of the Syſtema Vegetabilium. The natural characters are inſerted, and the eſſential ones of the genera are prefixed. Mr. Hull very juſtly rejects the innovations of Thunberg, who has omitted the claſſes gynandria, monœcia, diœcia, and polygamia, referring the plants in each to the claſſes and orders pointed out by the number of ſtamina and piſtils. Short obſervations on the natural orders, from Gieſecke, are ſubjoined. On the whole, theſe Elements merit our decided approbation, and we conſider this introductory work as equally elegant and accurate.

EDUCATION.

A Grammar of the Dutch Language. By Conradus Schwiers, D.D. Member of the Netherland Society, and eldeſt Miniſter of the Dutch Church of Auſtin Friars. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinſons. 1799.

Our connections with Holland have long been ſo conſiderable, that a knowledge of the Dutch language has been neceſſary to a great part of the mercantile world; and our late acquiſitions at the Cape of Good Hope and in the Eaſt Indies render the ſtudy of this language important to thoſe who may be entruſted with the civil and military arrangements of our new territories. On theſe accounts the publication of a grammar, preferable to that of Sewel, may be deemed uſeful; and, as the language does not deſerve any great attention from the ſcholar, the undertaking is not to be examined with too critical an eye. It will be ſufficient if it ſhould ſerve the purpoſe for which it was intended, without dwelling ſo much on the proper diſtinction of caſes, the diviſion of tenſes, or juſt ſyntax, as on a correct pronunciation, a few uſeful rules, and a good vocabulary. The latter part takes up very nearly one half of the volume. The ſyntax is very deficient, as may be judged from the conciſe mode of explaining the regimen of verbs. 'I. We have already obſerved that ſome verbs require the nominative caſe: we now add, 1. that others require a genitive; 2. ſome govern a dative; 3. ſome govern an accuſative; 4. moſt of the reciprocal and imperſonal verbs govern an accuſative, though many require a dative.' A ſingle inſtance is given of each rule; and the reader is left to his own genius on the moſt difficult part of the language. This grammarian has found out among the Dutch the following

tenses for his regular verb; the present, the preter-imperfect, the preter-perfect, the preter-pluperfect, and four futures; but, instead of these eight tenses, we should have been contented with two only. In this particular the writer is led away by the common mistake in the use of the auxiliary verbs. If the Dutch language merits cultivation, we would recommend the simplification of the verbs, and the enlargement of the syntax, in this grammar; and even for the sake of masters of ships and merchants' clerks, we wish that more attention had been paid to the true philosophy of grammar, and the ease of the learner.

Elements of Geography, expressly designed for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. Henry St. John Bullen, M. A. 12*mo*. 3*s*. 6*d*. Hurst. 1799.

We are happy to see a work of this kind from a master of a public grammar school; and, if the scholars at Bury should be daily exercised in the useful science of geography, according to the plan here laid down, they will be thankful in future life for the pains taken in the improvement of their early years. Youth is the time for imbibing and mastering the principles of this science. Much depends on memory, which will be judiciously cultivated by the recollection of the situation and the names of places on the earth, of the advantages and disadvantages attending every climate, of the manners and customs of different nations, &c. This is a small work; but, in skilful hands, it may be made very useful.

French Pronunciation and Reading made easy; or, the Logographic-Emblematical French Spelling-Book. Published by M. Lenoir. 8*vo*. Dulau. 1799.

Some parts of this performance suggest the idea of literary quackery, rather than afford hopes of the speedy improvement of the children into whose hands it may fall.

The Logographic-Emblematical English Spelling Book; or, a Method of teaching Children to read. By Mr. Lenoir. 8*vo*. Boosey. 1800.

We have strong doubts of the efficacy of the *new principle* mentioned by Mr. Lenoir in his title-page.

POETRY.

The Enchanted Plants, Fables in Verse. Inscribed to Miss Montolieu, and Miss Julia Montolieu. 8*vo*. 5*s*. *Boards*. Hurst. 1800.

These fables are the production of a lady. The introduction accounts for the personification which runs through the volume.

'Oft, to beguile the sultry hours,
In thought I've animated flowers,

Enlivening thus my walk,
And though no botanift profeffed,
Their reafoning powers have fhrewdly gueffed,
And longed to hear them talk.

'It chanced one lovely day in June,
Juft at the madding time of moon,
I fpoke this wifh aloud;
When from a panfy, with furprife,
I faw a gradual mift arife,
And form a filvery cloud.

'Forth from the glittering veil, behold,
In infect trappings, green and gold,
A fairy figure fprung,
Her wand a cowflip's ftamen feemed,
And on her head like diamonds beamed
A cafque with dew-drops hung.

'Her filken pinions as fhe flew,
Seemed by their fize and purple hue,
Spoils of the flower fhe left;
She foared aloft, and touched mine ear,
While I half-pleafed, half-dead with fear,
Remained of fpeech bereft.

'Then firft a fmall melodious tone,
Before to mortal wight unknown,
Struck my enraptured fenfe,
"Flora," it murmured, "grants thy prayer,
Long have her treafures been thy care,
Receive thy recompenfe."

'This faid, fhe vanifhed from my fight,
And fince, with ever new delight,
I tend my fragrant hoards;
No folitude exifts for me,
Since every flower, and fhrub, and tree,
Society affords.' P. 1.

The fables are eafily and agreeably verfified; and, as the perfonifications are not founded upon anthers and piftils, we as willingly accord liberty of fpeech to the lady's flowers, as to the birds and beafts of Æfop. We extract the fifth fable; but we do not felect it as the beft; for the fame eafe, fprightlinefs, and good fenfe, are vifible in all.

'Feeling! by words fo ill defined,
So lovely in an honeft mind,
How art thou grown in Fafhion's fchools
The mafk of vice, the cant of fools!

'How oft Impatience, temper's ſtorm,
For ſanction graſps thy glowing form!
How Affectation, Beauty's ſhame,
And Weakneſs proſtitute thy name!

'How oft by ſongs and novels taught,
They who ne'er knew one generous thought,
Their ſenſibilities reveal,
Sacred to ſuch as truly feel.

'She who the orphan's tear neglects,
Flavia, the tragic Muſe affects,
In ſorrow with the heroine vies—
Does Flavia feel, becauſe ſhe cries?

'And love-lorn nymphs whom vows deceive,
Unmoved their roof paternal leave,
Paſſion for ſentiment miſtake,
And doom a parent's heart to break.

'My fancy wandering uncontrolled,
Once to the river's ſide I ſtrolled,
When to my mind theſe thoughts occurred,
Wakened by plaintive ſounds I heard.

'The breeze was gentle as my theme,
And Cynthia mild as poet's dream,
And huſhed was every leafy ſpray,
Save the ſad ſubject of my lay.

'A willow bending o'er the flood,
Her leaves juſt ſtarting from the bud,
Like bird of night I heard complain
In moping melancholy ſtrain.

"Ah Nature! why when all is gay,
Or reſting from the toils of day,
Why is my waking ſoul the ſhrine
Of ſenſe ſo exquiſitely fine?

'If but a ſun-beam ſtrikes too warm,
How faints my undulating form!
The moſt diſpirited of trees,
If hollow ſounds the evening breeze.

'When cloudy yon blue vault appears,
Inſtant I droop diſſolved in tears;
If but a poplar frowns in ſcorn,
I ſorrow that I e'er was born."

'While thus ſhe mourned, ſhe ſobbed aloud,
And to the ſtream her branches bowed;
I gazed; and ſtill ſhe wept and ſighed,
Yet ſeemed to feel a ſecret pride.

'An alder by her plaints awoke,
Thus in reproachful accents spoke,
"Why, willow, why these vigils keep,
And break the sacred hour of sleep?

'Why still deem Nature's laws perverse,
Who make her choicest gifts a curse?
Feeling, whose shrine thy tears profane,
Is not th' eternal nurse of pain.

'When rain and tempest rule the hours,
How sympathize the plants and flowers?
The sun once more revives the plain,
They laugh with hope and joy again.

'Mark Pleasure's fascinating wiles,
And beauty's heart-illumined smiles;
The eye's quick glancing rapture tells
Unquestioned where the angel dwells.

'Where points the moon-beam, dost thou see
Near yon grey stone a lofty tree,
The cypress, mourner of the grove,
Placed by the hand of widowed love?

'His grief with dignity he bears,
A dark and settled sorrow wears,
Affects no attitudes of woe,
And scorns one trivial tear should flow.

'The genuine anguish of the heart,
Nor tears, nor sobs, nor groans impart,
But like this deep and silent wave,
Steals without murmur to the grave.

'To him who pines with grief sincere,
Like dreams of heavenly bliss appear
The fancied evils you deplore"....
She paused.—The willow wept the more.' P. 18.

Beaumaris Bay, a Poem: with Notes, descriptive and explanatory; Particulars of the Druids, Founders of some of the Fifteen Tribes of North Wales, the Families descended from them, and Quotations from the Bards. With an Appendix: containing an Account of the Battle of Beaumaris in 1648, *and the taking of the Castle.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sael *and* Co. 1800.

This poem seems to have been written as a vehicle for the Welch learning in the notes. These are full of miscellaneous information, which will be chiefly interesting to the author's countrymen. The poem is written in smooth couplets, of which the concluding lines may serve as a fair specimen.

'Again, see Priestholm rear its rocky sides,
And swell serenely from surrounding tides,

Firm, to the billowy rage, its front difplay,
And form a road to Wygir's friendly bay;
For when the ftorm impels the hurried waves,
Difturbs the deep, and on its furface raves—
The fhatter'd veffel to the rock devotes,
Thy bulwark, Britain, here in fafety floats!

'Eye, Mufe, the crowded ifle—its cliffs how gay,
While gazing ftrangers thro' its wonders ftray,
They view, with Terror's eye, the fhelving fteep,
And, daring man, look down upon the deep;
The murmuring puffins to their fhelter crowd—
The living furface—and the feather'd cloud—
The ambient waters—and the general fcream—
For novel Nature feems to them a dream.

'Now Day's bright beams to weftern waves retire,
And Thetis hails again light's radiant fire.
We leave the ifle—and homeward point the prow,
And now the bark proceeds ferene and flow,
While babbling echo from the cavern'd fhores,
Repeats the dafhing of the laboring oars;
And, pleas'd with Arfon's mimic voice, prolongs
The laugh-approving, and repeated fongs.
And now, alternate, on diftended fails,
The breathing air, or genial breeze prevails—
Plays on the furface, and at eve reftores
The mirthful group to Mona's greeting fhores:
The day is clos'd—the fluttering fails are furl'd—
And night, in fhade and ftillnefs, folds the world!' P. 47.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

The Wrangling Philofophers; or, Volney's Anfwer to Doctor Prieftley, on his Pamphlet, entitled 'Obfervations upon the Increafe of Infidelity, with Animadverfions upon the Writings of feveral modern Unbelievers, and efpecially the Ruins of Mr. Volney, with this Motto: "Minds of little Penetration reft naturally on the Surface of Things. They do not like to pierce deep into them, for Fear of Labour and Trouble; fometimes ftill more for Fear of Truth——." With Notes by the Editor. 8vo. 6*d*. Chapple. 1799.

Volney gives fome fatisfactory reafons for not entering into a controverfy with his antagonift; and the editor's end in this publication is to bring both authors into contempt. But neither his title-page nor his notes do him honour; and, without any partiality for the peculiarities of thefe philofophers, we cannot fuffer them to fall a prey to mere felf-conceit and intolerance. There are, and have often been, wrangling philofophers, and wrangling divines, and

wrangling politicians; but the diſputations of theſe two philoſophers did not require ſuch an epithet. We wiſh that divines, philoſophers, and politicians, would endeavour in their controverſies to give as little ground as poſſible to the common enemy to hold them up to the world as mere wranglers.

A Memorial read to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, December 18, 1799; *and a Speech, delivered before the ſame Society, January* 29, 1800; *by Edmund Cartwright, M. A. and Prebendary of Lincoln: with an Appendix, containing Letters from the late Sir William Jones, Dr. Thurlow, late Biſhop of Durham, and other diſtinguiſhed Characters. To which are added, Certificates of the Power of his improved Steam Engine, and the uſeful Application of his other Mechanical Inventions.* 8vo. 2s. Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

Mr. Cartwright ſeems to be in pain at being obliged to be the herald of his own praiſe; but, as a candidate to ſucceed Mr. More in the office of ſecretary to the ſociety to which his memorial is addreſſed, he was obliged to ſtate his pretenſions. The modeſt dignified propriety with which he has done this, merits praiſe; and the handſome manner in which he relinquiſhed his claim in favour of a gentleman whoſe qualifications he allowed to be ſuperior, adds ſtill more to his credit. Some ſeemingly indelicate queſtions and inſinuations have induced him to publiſh the memorial, &c. a meaſure which we do not diſapprove. He has juſt claims on the attention of the public for acquiſitions varied and uſeful; and he brings them forward with the manly dignity of conſcious ability.

A Vindication of the Principles upon which ſeveral Unitarian Chriſtians have formed themſelves into Societies, for the Purpoſe of avowing and recommending their Views of Religious Doctrine, by the Diſtribution of Books. In a Letter to ———. By John Kentiſh. The ſecond Edition. 12mo. Johnſon. 1800.

In the year 1794 the truſtees of a meeting-houſe refuſed the uſe of it to the members of the Unitarian Society, inſtituted for the diſtribution of books and the promotion of religious knowledge. This letter was in conſequence addreſſed to the leading member among the truſtees, and publiſhed. The principles of the unitarians are vindicated; but the right to refuſe them the uſe of a particular meeting is not invalidated. It is remarkable that the writer did not omit in this edition his reference to the vindication of the unitarians by the Welch freeholder, ſince the gentleman who aſſumed that appellation has renounced his unitarian ſentiments, and enrolled himſelf among the members of the church of England.

An Appeal to the Britiſh Hop-Planters. By S. F. Waddington. 8vo. 1s. Croſby *and* Letterman. 1800.

Mr. Waddington is accuſed of 'foreſtalling, by purchaſing the

greater part of the hop-crops in the county of Kent, in order to raise the market;' and the cause is to be heard in the court of King's-Bench. In such a case it is our duty not to interfere. It is the duty of all to preserve their minds free from bias, either against the supposed forestaller, because the brewers may have suffered by the advance of the price of hops, or in his favour, because he has served the hop-planters by introducing them, as he says, into a share of those profits which were formerly divided between middle men and hop-factors. We cannot doubt that the cause will be fairly tried; and at the same time we conceive the writer to be perfectly justified in endeavouring to remove by this publication the grounds of censure, which the mere mention of the charges may have brought against him in the opinion of any part of the public. According to this representation, he was engaged in an innocent speculation on hops; he purchased of the planter at a higher rate than the factors of the borough would give; he did not forestall the market; for it seems to be difficult, according to this account, to ascertain to what market the hops were intended to be carried. He was a dealer in hops in the county of Kent, bought and sold like other persons, and was engaged in no attempt to take an undue advantage from his knowledge or his capital. Here the matter must rest till the affair shall be decided in Westminster-Hall, when the justice of the country will preserve his character from injury, or award the punishment which the law directs. We shall not notice a few asperities and attempts at wit on his adversaries, because some allowance may be made for that state of irritation which a person may be supposed to feel on the mere imputation of guilt, under which he must labour till the forms of law permit him to be legally heard in his defence.

A Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine, on the Subject of forestalling Hops: including a Plan for the Reduction of the Price of Corn, Porter, &c. With an Exposition of the fraudulent Practices of the Planters. Earnestly recommended to the Consideration of Sam. Ferrand Waddington, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Pitkeathley. 1800.

Fifteen pages for eighteen-pence! The subject of forestalling, as far as it refers to the gentleman mentioned in the title-page, we leave to the decision of the King's-Bench, esteeming him to be perfectly innocent till a verdict has been pronounced respecting his supposed crimes. On the substitution of other bitters for hops, we entirely agree with the writer; and the alteration which we should propose in the act would be to permit the use of all bitters not poisonous, at the discretion of the brewer, obliging him only to name the ingredients mixed in his porter.

Cursory Remarks on Bread and Coals. 8vo. 1s. Duncan. 1800.

Very cursory indeed! It is recommended to government to take the poor rates into its own hands, for the purpose of removing and

extinguiſhing abuſes; a meaſure which would increaſe the expence and abuſes tenfold. Government is alſo to look after our coals and our food; to become coal-merchant, corn-factor, and baker. Government may indeed wiſely interfere at times, in regulating the actions of its ſubjects, who are engaged in ſpeculations on the neceſſaries or the conveniences of life; but there are dangers even on that head, and the interference of government in the former ſcarcity, which the ſpeculations from the ordinary channels were ruined, is the beſt proof that it cannot enter on ſuch ſpeculations without injury to itſelf, to the merchant, and to the conſumer.

A Propoſal for reſtoring the Antient Conſtitution of the Mint, ſo far as relates to the Expence of Coinage. Together with the Outline of a Plan for the Improvement of the Money; and for increaſing the Difficulty of Counterfeiting. By the Rev. Rogers Ruding. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sewell. 1799.

In a buſineſs of conſiderable importance, Mr. Ruding has ventured to ſuggeſt to the miniſtry ſome hints which are worthy of ſerious attention. He adviſes that the preſent ſtandard ſhould be preſerved; that a farther inquiry be made into alloy, to aſcertain what mixture of metals will give the greateſt degree of hardneſs to the coin; that the weight of each piece be ſo diminiſhed as to defray the expence of the mint, at the medium value of bullion; that the ſize of each piece ſhould be conſiderably reduced, ſo as to diminiſh the loſs from friction, and to render counterfeiting more difficult; that the die be diſtinguiſhed by ſuperiority of execution, &c. It is probable that few objections will be made to any of the reforms propoſed, except that which relates to weight; and they who now take a flat piece of ſilver without any impreſſion, and far under weight, inſtead of a ſhilling, would perhaps complain if they had a larger quantity of ſilver, with a beautiful impreſſion, but a grain or two under the preſent weight eſtabliſhed by authority. We highly approve the propoſed reforms; and indeed much leſs would, in the preſent miſerable ſtate of the coinage, be acceptable.

Reports reſpecting the Diſtilleries in Scotland, by Committees of the Hon. the Houſe of Commons, appointed in 1798 and 1799; the Right Hon. Sylveſter Douglas in the Chair. 8vo. Wright. 1799.

The ingenuity of mankind is, perhaps, in no inſtance more exerted than in the diſtilleries of Scotland and the committees of the houſe of commons; in the latter, to deviſe the beſt means of ſecuring the revenue expected from the diſtilleries; the other, in diſcovering the beſt means of rendering ſuch arrangements inefficacious. Stills may be gauged; exciſemen may intrude; licenſes may be declared to be neceſſary: yet it appears, that the perſon who has the greateſt intereſt in making exertions, will, under every poſſible arrangement, find out, without a violation of the ſtatute, ſome improvement that will give him an advantage of which the legiſlature will endeavour

to deprive him. Thus there is a continued contest between the distilleries and the excise, which has led to such improvements in distilling as might seem to surpass all human power. In these reports 'the depravity of human nature' is adduced as the cause of the inefficacy of former regulations; and as the depravity of distillers, excisemen, and even members of parliament, is so universally allowed, it is trifling to dwell upon such a subject; for this depravity cannot be cured by the excise laws. Whatever may be the state of any country, the introduction of excise laws must tend to deprave some classes of the subjects. In this work the system is well developed; grounds for the new arrangements are established on fixed principles; and we may venture to prognosticate, that, in the contest between the wisdom of the legislature and the wisdom of the manufacturer, the latter will be always victorious

Advice to Editors of Newspapers. 8vo. 1s. Macpherson. 1799.

The mysteries of the newspaper press are in some respects well explained; and the grosser faults in these publications are glanced at in the style, if not the wit, of Swift's advice to servants. The newspapers are of so much importance to the public, that we cannot be too eager for the correction of their faults; and the time of this writer will be well employed in examining their progress, and certifying annually to the public which of the editors comply most punctually with his advice and directions.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

WE have received a letter signed 'A Church of England Methodist,' to which we assure the writer that we shall pay particular attention. It is not within our province to make remarks on the opinions or statements of other reviewers. In the case alluded to we can answer only for our own impartiality; but we cannot help observing that the writer mistakes the meaning of orthodox, if he supposes in that case the question of orthodoxy to be concerned. Orthodoxy and heterodoxy refer to different opinions of persons on the words or doctrines of those to whose authority both parties submit. Infidelity, scepticism, deism, and atheism, are not implicated in the question of orthodoxy or heterodoxy: the systems must not be confounded, nor the advocates even of such pernicious systems misrepresented.

We beg leave to inform A. B. that the work which he mentions has not been received.

ERRATA.

In our last Appendix, p. 506, l. 34, for *respected* read *suspected*; also, p. 592, l. 2, for *sentiments* read *statements*.